

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### A BULLETIN ON THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The Research Division of the National Education Association has issued a bulletin entitled *Vitalizing the High-School Curriculum*. The bulletin discusses all the subjects taught in high schools and summarizes the investigations which have been made in recent years with regard to the place of each subject in the school program and with regard to the methods used in teaching the various subjects. An excellent and exhaustive bibliography is included. The general methods of studying the curriculum are also discussed.

As an introduction to the summaries of the investigations reported, the following statement is made regarding the methods employed in investigating curriculum problems.

A review of recent research studies bearing on the secondary-school curriculum shows that something has been done in each of these six fields: (1) determination of objectives of the various secondary-school subjects, (2) selection of curriculum content on more or less objective bases, (3) discovery of pupils' interests and methods of teaching by which they learn most easily, (4) development of various types of standardized tests, (5) analyses of textbooks, and (6) surveys of present conditions in secondary education.

Since all these fields of investigation are illustrated in subsequent sections of this Bulletin, only brief mention is made of them here.

The most common form of research in the determination of objectives is to

summarize the published statements which represent the judgment of frontier thinkers or committees, noting wherein their viewpoints agree or disagree.

Among the research methods for the selection of curriculum content are job and activity analyses; tests of practicality, such as frequency of use in business and social practice and frequency of mention in newspapers and periodicals; analysis of home activities; and tabulation of interests of pupils and their parents.

Studies of how children learn are a guide in the selection of methods, grade placement of materials, and assignments.

Among the various types of standardized tests which research has developed are prognostic, accomplishment, and diagnostic tests. Many local school systems have found it desirable to develop tests to cover the content included in their new courses of study.

Analyses of textbooks are made chiefly for these two reasons: (1) to see how nearly the points covered agree with the content outlined in the course of study and (2) to see whether the materials presented are within the range of comprehension of the pupils using them.

Status studies or surveys of present practices are often as valuable in showing weaknesses as in serving as a direct guide. An evaluation of local conditions is often a good starting-point for curriculum revision. Periodic studies of current practices in a large number of school systems are valuable in showing trends.

#### EXPECTATION OF COLLEGE ATTENDANCE AMONG HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS IN WISCONSIN

The University of Wisconsin secured the co-operation of a large number of high schools in the state in administering a series of psychological tests to members of the Senior classes. Certain items of information were collected in addition to answers to test questions. One such item related to the expectation of the Seniors of attendance on college. F. O. Holt, registrar and director of the Bureau of Guidance of the University of Wisconsin, summarizes as follows the facts regarding expectation of college attendance:

Among high-school Seniors who scored in the upper 25 per cent in the tests, 62.3 per cent declared their intention of going to a four-year college. In the next 25 per cent, 45.6 per cent stated they are going on to such colleges. In the next 25 per cent, 38.4 propose to go on. In the lowest 25 per cent, 30.0 per cent expressed an intention of going on to college.

These figures are based on tests given to practically all the high-school Seniors in Wisconsin. Comparisons may be made with figures from surveys in other states where groups of high-school Seniors but not the entire number were studied.

In a survey of 3,333 high-school Seniors in Massachusetts, as many in the

weaker groups as in the stronger groups declared their intention of going on to school.

A study of over seven thousand in Indiana suggests that high-school Seniors of all grades of mental ability proposed to go to college in about equal numbers.

Exactly 26.8 per cent of all high-school Seniors in an Illinois study who intended to go to some kind of school—to college, business school, and other types—were in the upper 25 per cent, as contrasted with 34.9 per cent of those in Wisconsin going on to college who are in the upper 25 per cent. In the middle 50 per cent of the high-school Seniors in the Illinois study, 50.9 per cent proposed to go to some sort of school following graduation. Among those who scored in the lowest 25 per cent, 22.3 per cent in the Illinois study expressed an intention of going to some school.

Surveys in North Carolina indicated that, of the upper 25 per cent of high-school Seniors, 30.0 per cent intended to go to some sort of school, whereas in Wisconsin 62.3 per cent of this group expressed an intention of going to a four-year college.

Tabulations of data in the Wisconsin tests show that 1,563 of the high-school Seniors who scored in the upper 25 per cent have no intention of going to college. Among the next 25 per cent, 2,300 expressed no intention of continuing their education.

In the lowest 25 per cent, 1,255 expressed an intention of going to college, students whose scores indicated they would have a difficult task in carrying an ordinary college course.

#### EQUAL PAY FOR WOMEN

The following statement was published by the *New York Sun*.

Charles H. Elliott, state commissioner of education of New Jersey, ordered the Perth Amboy Board of Education to equalize compensation for work performed by men and women high-school teachers having the same qualifications and training. He did so in deciding the appeal of sixteen women teachers of the Perth Amboy high schools who contested the validity of a resolution adopted by the local board of education in fixing the salary schedule for the school year 1929-30.

The schedule proposed a yearly increase of \$100 until a common maximum was reached and continued the discrimination in favor of men teachers as provided under previous salary schedules.

The women teachers contended that the resolution was in violation of a 1925 act of the New Jersey Legislature prohibiting discrimination in favor of the men teachers. An appeal was filed with Dr. Elliott in an effort to settle the controversy.

In deciding the appeal, Commissioner Elliott ordered the local board to equalize the wages either by increasing the pay of the women teachers or by formulating a new plan by which men and women teachers are compensated on a

reduced equality basis with the exception of certain already existing higher salaries in which certain teachers have vested tenure rights.

"The new schedule did provide, it is true, for a common maximum for men and women teachers, but the board impliedly incorporated in such new schedule in every instance and as a base for such increase the salaries already discriminatory as to amount between men and women, with the result that discrimination in favor of the men is perpetuated over a period of years until the women reach the common maximum," said Dr. Elliott in his opinion.

"Whenever, therefore, there exists a difference in compensation between those men and women high-school teachers who are placed in the Perth Amboy salary schedule upon the same plane of work, training, and experience in the district, it must inevitably be concluded that such discrimination is based on sex and therefore unlawful under the 1925 statute.

"In the commissioner's opinion, the Perth Amboy Board of Education may proceed, if it can secure the necessary additional funds, to equalize the salaries of its men and women high-school teachers of equal training, experience, and work under the already existing plan of the 1929-30 schedule. On the other hand, the board may desire to formulate a new plan by which such men and women teachers are compensated on a reduced equality basis with the exception of certain already existing higher salaries in which certain teachers have vested tenure rights.

"It is, however, in any event, and without attempting to prescribe the exact method, hereby ordered that the Perth Amboy Board of Education proceed at once to reframe its salary schedule for the year 1929-30 so that the principle of equal compensation for men and women high-school teachers of equal work, training, and experience shall be observed in all cases."

#### ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORTH DAKOTA

Under the direction of the State Department of Public Instruction of North Dakota, Helen J. Sullivan recently conducted a survey of the high schools in the state in order to determine the achievements of the pupils in English. Tests were given in 477 schools. The particular test used was the Alpha form of the Minimum Essentials Test prepared by Annie Ginsberg and Rewey Belle Inglis, of the faculty of the University of Minnesota. The results secured are described in the following paragraphs.

Are the schools fulfilling the possibilities before them in the matter of giving children under their care command of the language? The present study answers a narrow phase of that question, and answers it in the negative. A review of the material and findings presented in the previous chapters indicates a condition indicative of illogical and hazy thought and of the careless and inac-



curate use of some of the most ordinary symbols of communication. This study is of necessity somewhat narrow and is confined in the first two sections to a test of abilities in written English; however, those sections together with that on grammar give a representative cross-section of the situation. The group herein discussed is moreover not merely the rank and file of those who have completed the elementary course of study but a selective group surviving the distinct break between the two types of school, elementary and secondary.

How well have the pupils of the ninth grade mastered the fundamentals of skill in the use of language? This after the pupil has had one semester of Freshman composition, five recitations of forty minutes for each of eighteen weeks, and another semester of the study of prose and verse selections. The performance of the average ninth-grade pupil in the state on this test is 62.5; 50 per cent do work ranging from 50.5 to 75; and one-fourth have records from 18 to 50.5. While the median performance is but 5.5 below that of the Alpha median, it must be remembered that the Alpha median itself is merely the average achievement of another group of pupils and does not indicate a condition that is ideal or even commendable. These minimum essentials, as the name implies, are minimum goals which must be reached and are not standards at which to aim. In other words, by the completion of the twelfth grade the standard reached by each pupil should be 100. From this point of view, it is clear that the teaching of English in the North Dakota high schools leaves much to be desired.

The results secured in the state-wide survey in North Dakota are probably not very different from those which would be obtained in any state. They make it clear that administrators and teachers must unite in a vigorous effort to improve instruction in English. The desired improvement may possibly be secured by redoubling efforts along conventional lines. On the other hand, it seems natural to suggest that possibly a new kind of attack on the problem of teaching English is demanded in view of the evidence that the present methods are relatively ineffective. A recent book prepared by Phyllis Robbins and published by the Harvard University Press under the title *An Approach to Composition through Psychology* can be recommended as describing for one phase of English-teaching an approach which is by no means common in America. This book is especially encouraging because it seems to indicate a fundamental reconsideration of the methods of teaching high-school English.

#### THE BIMILLENNIUM VERGILIANUM

The American Classical League is sponsoring in this country the celebration in 1930 of the two thousandth birthday of the poet

Vergil. The general chairman of the committees in charge of the celebration is Anna P. MacVay, of the Wadleigh High School, New York City. A statement made by her regarding the celebration is as follows:

In 1924, lovers of Vergil in his native Italy sent forth in Latin a proclamation inviting the world to join them in honoring the great poet. The American Classical League, because it is a national organization, is developing plans for promoting a nation-wide observance, which is to extend throughout the year 1930 though centering about Vergil's birthday on the fifteenth of October. To make the occasion a glad and memorable one, the League invites and desires the assistance not only of every classical association and club but of every other organization which sympathizes in our desire to show special honor to the poet whose verses through twenty centuries promote the arts of peace, quicken the patriotic sense of duty, portray the ruling passions of mankind, and sympathize with human sorrow.

This celebration should extend to every community and be fittingly observed in schools, colleges, clubs, libraries, museums, and art galleries. It should take form in plays, pageants, lectures, and pictures. It should find expression over the radio and in music. It should stimulate many to engage in public and private reading of Vergil's works and of books about him, in poetic compositions, and in literary and artistic contests, such as the writing of scenarios and the making of posters, thereby helping to improve our forms of popular entertainment and stimulate general appreciation of classical studies. . . .

The League, through its Service Bureau for Classical Teachers and by means of numerous committees, will disseminate widely its plans and programs and keep in touch with like movements elsewhere.

The celebration will be the occasion of a vigorous effort to stimulate high schools to organize courses in which pupils will study Vergil. It is to be hoped that in many schools English translations will be read in order that appreciation of the poet's writings may not be made impossible because of inadequate mastery of the Latin language.

There is an opportunity in this celebration to promote the study and appreciation of literature, especially poetry. It is far more important that this general purpose be served than that propaganda for classical education should succeed.

At the request of Miss MacVay, the following letter to principals of public and private secondary schools prepared by the Committee on Promoting Vergil Courses in Schools, is published in full.

The Shakespeare tercentenary was recently celebrated with enthusiasm. Six hundred years after Dante's death the world paid him homage. And in 1930 we shall have the privilege of honoring Vergil's memory on the occasion of the two thousandth anniversary of his birth. Tennyson's lines, written at the request of the Mantuans nineteen hundred years after the poet's death, still ring in our ears as the classic appreciation of the genius of the great Italian:

I salute thee, Mantovano,  
I that loved thee since my days began,  
Wielder of the stateliest measure  
Ever moulded by the lips of man.

There will be nothing merely local about this celebration, for long ago Vergil became a cosmic voice.

The observance of the festival will be international. Sponsored by the American Classical League, numerous committees have been appointed for the Bimillennium Vergilianum in this country. Radio talks; special exercises in schools, colleges, and clubs; moving pictures; pageants; and plays, with the backing of the National Education Association, the United States Bureau of Education, Phi Beta Kappa, and numerous other organizations, are being arranged. Prizes will be awarded. The comparative-literature phase of Vergil will be emphasized.

The part of this festival which the schools are to have the privilege of carrying out is of the greatest importance. "Where there is no vision, the people perish"; and the vision, as well as the task, is at hand. We ask you—

1. To induce many more of your pupils to take up the study of Vergil.
2. To stimulate contests among your pupils and the awarding of prizes for essays, poems, scenarios, and translations dealing with Vergil's art, works, life, or influence.
3. To form Vergilian reading circles among your teachers and friends so that they may read all the poet's works in the original or in good translations between now and the close of 1930.
4. To plan a "Vergil Day" with appropriate ceremonies for October 15, 1930, and to give a Vergilian flavor to many of the school entertainments and plays throughout the year.
5. To encourage your English and modern-language departments to study Vergil's influence on modern literature.
6. To help plan the publication of a tribute book in memory of the poet, which shall contain the "best that has been thought and said" about him down the ages.
7. To send to the chairman of the committee [Richard M. Gummere, William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania] additional suggestions for the worthy recognition of this outstanding event of the year 1930.

It is the testimony of all those who supervise students of Latin that they read Vergil with the greatest pleasure—that Caesar may interest, that Cicero

may awe, that Ovid may give delight, but that Vergil grips the feelings and kindles the imagination.

Let us all, therefore, hold high the torch of enthusiasm for this notable celebration. Let us know your suggestions—official and unofficial. America owes a debt to this timeless and world-wide genius, who is so completely in harmony with our higher selves, in whose lines *Mentem mortalia tangunt*.

#### PRINTING AS A HIGH-SCHOOL SUBJECT

L. G. Osborn, director of research in the East St. Louis High School, East St. Louis, Illinois, recently made a study of printing as a high-school subject. He secured statements from fifteen high schools in Illinois, Iowa, and Indiana. His findings with regard to recognized aims and with regard to the number of units of credit which can be earned are as follows:

"Giving cultural knowledge and an appreciation of the technique of the production of the printed page" was the aim which was given the highest rating by the largest number of schools. The total rating score was 73.

"To teach appreciation of the ideals of neatness, accuracy, and good work" was set forth as the next most important aim of printing. The total of the ratings given this aim was 68.

"To encourage interest and develop appreciation for the principles of applied art and design" was given the next highest ranking. The total of the ratings given this aim was 49.

"To teach printing for exploratory purposes" was given as the next most important aim. Its total rating was 48.

"To furnish laboratory facilities for work in English composition and journalism" and "to enable the school to have printed forms, a newspaper, magazines, handbook, etc., which it could not otherwise afford" were given equal ratings and ranked fifth and sixth with a total score of 45 each.

"To teach a vocation" was given seventh ranking, with a total score of 43.

"To give an opportunity to those who cannot succeed in more difficult academic courses to earn credits in handwork courses" was given eighth ranking, with a total score of 38. An examination of the table, however, will show that the opinions regarding this aim were more evenly distributed than were the opinions regarding any other aim in the list.

"To meet the demands of the printing trade for trade workers" was given ninth ranking, with a total score of 34.

"To be able to economize on the school printing bill" was given tenth ranking, with a score of 20.

"To offer a means of motivation for various forms of mathematics" was given eleventh ranking, with a total of 18. . . .

Table III shows the number of units of credit which may be earned in

printing in the schools responding. By a unit of credit is meant approximately one-fourth of the total amount of credit which a pupil can earn by carrying a normal amount of work during a school year. A four-year high-school curriculum is regarded as representing not more than sixteen units of work. Under this definition we find three schools offering one unit of credit in printing, eight schools offering two units of credit, one school offering three units of credit, two schools offering four units of credit, and one school offering six units of credit. The median number of units of credit offered is two.

#### THE ELLA VICTORIA DOBBS FELLOWSHIP

Pi Lambda Theta, the honorary national fraternity for women in education, awards annually the Ella Victoria Dobbs Fellowship. The following announcement regarding this fellowship has been issued.

For the year 1930-31, Pi Lambda Theta offers a fellowship to a woman who wishes to devote herself to research in education. This fellowship is to be known as the Ella Victoria Dobbs Fellowship of Pi Lambda Theta. It carries a stipend of \$1,000, \$900 of which will be paid in two equal amounts. One hundred dollars will be due when the final obligations have been met.

*Qualifications.*—The candidate for this research fellowship shall have at least the degree of Master of Arts from a graduate school of recognized worth. In addition, she shall have shown notable skill in teaching and significant accomplishment in research, and she shall have definite plans for further research.

*Obligations.*—The acceptance of the fellowship implies the obligation on the part of the scholar to devote herself unreservedly to study or research as outlined in her application; to submit any proposed change in her plan to the chairman for approval; and to send to the chairman at least two reports of her work, the first, not later than January 15, giving a statement of her work which will satisfy the committee that she is pursuing the research indicated in her application. The second report shall be made upon the completion of her year's work. This latter report shall be in printed form, as previously agreed upon with the committee.

The committee regards the acceptance of the fellowship as creating a contract requiring the fulfilment of these conditions.

*Applications.*—Each applicant should submit (1) a record of her formal education, (2) a record of her professional activities, (3) evidence of previous research, (4) a physician's statement concerning her health, (5) a list of the persons whom she has asked to write directly to the secretary in support of her application. Among those asked to write shall be two women who will send to the committee a careful, confidential judgment of the personality of the applicant.

Theses, papers, letters, etc., submitted by the applicants will be returned if postage is sent for the purpose. Confidential letters sent to the committee will not be returned.

A personal meeting with a member of the committee will be of great advantage.

Applications must be made on a blank form which will be supplied on request by the secretary of the Committee on Award, Delia E. Kibbe, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin. This blank must be filled out and submitted with all supporting papers and letters not later than January 1, 1930.

Committee on Award: W. W. Charters, director of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University; Ella Victoria Dobbs, associate professor of industrial arts, University of Missouri; Charles H. Judd, director of the School of Education, University of Chicago; F. B. Knight, professor of education, State University of Iowa; F. Louise Nardin, dean of women, University of Wisconsin; Genevieve Bixler, School of Education, University of Chicago, president of Pi Lambda Theta; and Delia E. Kibbe, supervisor of elementary grades, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin, *secretary*.

#### ALUMNI SESSION OF LAFAYETTE COLLEGE

Much has been said and written concerning the influence which alumni exert on colleges and universities. The discussions usually center on the overemphasis placed on athletics. The critics affirm that the only element of college life in which graduates appear to be interested is that having to do with winning football teams. The fact is cited that practically the only occasions on which former students return with enthusiasm to the campus are those when the football team battles with some hated rival in the stadium. Thus college authorities are wont to place the blame for the lack of student interest in those intellectual things for which the institution is supposed to stand. The alumnus may well ask, however, "What else but its athletic program does my college offer after I have left its halls?" This is a fair question and one that in most instances cannot be answered satisfactorily. The vocal minority of the alumni who are athletic enthusiasts make their influence felt, while the silent majority go their way, busy with their own affairs and out of touch with those things which were near to their hearts in their undergraduate days. When they hear from the college, it is usually from the office of the graduate manager or the chairman of the endowment committee. What the college is doing to add to the store of human knowledge, what it has that will help the alumnus to go forward in the pursuit of the finer things of life are rarely stressed in any communication which he receives.



It was this situation which prompted Lafayette College to project the alumni-college idea and to hold its first session in June, 1929. This unique enterprise was founded on the theory that an institution of higher learning is rendering full service only when it offers continuing instruction to those who have passed out of its halls.

The plan of the alumni college was briefly this. It held its sessions in the week following alumni day, when hundreds of graduates returned to the campus for class reunions. During that period those who enrolled lived together in one of the college dormitories, boarded at the faculty club, and attended lectures given in the various college buildings by some of the leading professors. No set schedule was insisted on, the individual being allowed to select from day to day those lectures and demonstrations which most appealed to him. The academic work was carried on in the morning. In the afternoon recreational opportunities were provided. Tennis, golf, and swimming were among the athletic features. The evenings were devoted to informal social affairs offering opportunities for the renewal of old friendships.

There were eight courses of lectures and round-table discussions extending over the week: "Types of Tragic Drama" by Professor James Waddell Tupper, of the English Department; "Current Movements in Education" by Professor William O. Allen, of the Department of Education; "Politics and the Individual" by Professor Miller D. Steever, of the Department of Government and Law; "Old Testament Literature" by Professor Charles W. Harris, of the Bible Department; "Developments in Electrical Engineering during 1928" by Professor Morland King, of the Electrical Engineering Department; "New Conceptions in Chemistry" by Professor Eugene C. Bingham, of the Chemistry Department; "Economic Problems" by Assistant Professor Frank R. Hunt, of the Economics Department; and a course in football-coaching by Herbert McCracken, head football coach, who directed the recreation program.

Fifty-seven alumni were enrolled. They represented classes all the way from 1883 to 1928. In the group were newspaper publishers, clergymen, lawyers, manufacturers, business men, and teachers.

It was expected that the alumni would perhaps attend one lecture a day and spend the remainder of the time in athletic and social activities, but this was not the case. Most of the men went to lectures



from nine to twelve each morning during the week. In a letter sent to the Alumni Office, a New York business man said:

When I left home, I told my wife I would attend one lecture a day and play golf. Instead, I attended lectures every morning from nine to twelve and after Tuesday cut out the golf entirely as interfering with more delightful and profitable ways of spending my time.

A clergyman wrote:

As to the Alumni College, permit me to confess that it was my purpose to attend the classes on Monday and then return to the round of a busy pastor in an active ministry. This was impossible after attending the classes on Monday, for no person with any sense of an intellectual treat could refrain from attending every class possible.

Not only were all the lectures largely attended, but they were enthusiastically received by the alumni. A member of the class of 1927 said:

For the first time in my experience some outward appreciation was shown for the lecturer, as in English and Continental universities, in the applause which invariably followed the lectures. I wonder whether the professors who gave their time and efforts for the Alumni College won't miss that in the autumn.

A suggestion relative to the value of the Alumni College is found in the following statement from a lawyer.

It emphasized the fact that we are likely to be sluggards in acquiring knowledge after we are through college. The Alumni College brought us to a realization of this and further emphasized that in mature years acquiring knowledge is a matter of interest and pleasure in contrast to the frequent undergraduate point of view that it is an unpleasant duty and a necessary evil.

A similar reaction was expressed as follows:

After being out of college for a goodly number of years, it was very stimulating and refreshing to be back on the campus again and to come into vital touch for a week with men who are masters in their respective fields and who were able to give us in a few days the modern point of view on things educational.

Perhaps the following statement by a leader in the insurance field sums up the ideals and the accomplishments of the first Alumni College.

Fifteen hours of intellectual helpfulness combined with a spiritual insight that prevailed throughout were followed by golfing, motoring, and hiking, and

in between were the meals at the faculty club, where the discussions were continued and the general association with men of my generation in college in Easton Hall—that was the picture that drew me to Easton, helped me, thrilled me while I was there and awakened anew love for the old college and its professors and its ideals and institutions. . . . A place to return to for a renewal of our spirit, a new source of help and inspiration, first of all, in our relations to the old college and, in a larger way, in our contact with our fellow-men—that is what the Alumni College means to those of us who attended the first session. May its power ever increase.

The *Christian Century*, in referring to the experiment, said:

The Alumni College is based on the presumption that graduates may desire to be students again for a week, not merely to be rah-rah boys under the handicap of gray hairs, rheumatism, and a thickened waistline. It seems a reasonable hypothesis. It actually is true, in spite of some evidence to the contrary, that one of the principal student activities in college is study, and there are a great many graduates whose memories of college life include the fact that there the birth of permanent intellectual interests took place. To all such the Alumni College appeals.

An editorial in the *New York Herald Tribune* said:

The Lafayette Alumni College is a symptom of that general movement in adult education which has been slowly penetrating America. Adult education used to be conceived as reserved for those who had no chance at intellectual training in youth. But increasingly it became evident that to stop education is rapidly to become uneducated.

Several other colleges and universities had representatives at Lafayette College during the sessions of the Alumni College observing the workings of the plan, and at least three are now making arrangements for similar enterprises next year.

Lafayette College will make the alumni session a permanent part of its program. On the basis of this year's experience, certain additions will be made to the end that the greatest usefulness in this interesting phase of adult education may result.

W. M. LEWIS, *President*

#### THE HARVARD READING PERIOD

A student who has experienced the special type of training which is provided in the long periods at Harvard University in which class exercises are discontinued and students devote themselves to reading writes for the *Christian Science Monitor* as follows:

Having passed through four "reading periods" at Harvard, I find myself asking the question which students and educators everywhere have put concerning Harvard's innovation of two years ago—"Is it fulfilling the hopes of its sponsors?" As the department of history and literature, in which I am concentrating, is entirely in favor of the plan and employs it in all courses above Freshman grade, I have had an opportunity to test out the reading period from a student's standpoint. In theory, the plan is designed to promote individual study by setting aside a period of from two to three weeks twice each year when lectures cease and students cover alone an assigned amount of reading, often of their own choice. My experience has been that the plan is beneficial in the study of history and literature.

When the plan was first announced two years ago, student opinion was divided as to its practicability. A period of over two weeks with no check upon the attendance or industry of the students seemed to offer a chance for an added vacation. The *Lampoon* came out with a cartoon showing the cobwebbed interior of Widener Library enlivened only by the snores of a few conscientious and overworked "grinds." Presumably, the student body had migrated to New York for the reading period. A Boston newspaper later reprinted this cartoon together with a photograph of the library made during the first reading period and showing every table crowded with hard-working students. The humorous prophecy had been proved only a jest.

There was good reason for activity on the undergraduates' part. In one history course I had been assigned some 800 pages of reading while the average ran around 450 pages for each course. A total of something like 2,000 pages of reading had to be done and was to be tested in the mid-year examinations. How to handle this assignment properly was a new problem. Individual initiative was called for in selecting from this mass of reading the important points without having them placed before you by a lecturer.

Without a certain amount of preparation in methods of college study, such an assignment would be of no value, for the student would be unable to avail himself of the opportunity for selective study. In order to provide this training in method, the plan was made to apply only to upper-class courses and only in those departments of the university primarily concerned with wide reading. Mathematics and the sciences were left unchanged, as they cannot profitably be studied without constant supervision and instruction. Such subjects as history, literature, government, and the languages were changed to the new plan, which did not affect a student until the middle of his second year. A year and a half was thus allowed for becoming accustomed to college methods.

My first reading period, halfway through my Sophomore year, left me undecided as to the merits of the new system. The freedom from interruptions made it possible to work more consecutively and to arrange the subjects in the most convenient order. Since the reading period came just before the time set aside for mid-year examinations, there was a total interval of over four weeks when no lectures were given. This time could be used to best advantage in

preparing for the examinations, which were scattered over nearly two weeks. On the other hand, this first trial of independent study taxed my ingenuity, and I felt that I was not yet getting from the period as much as I should because of my lack of experience in that sort of self-guidance.

At the end of my Sophomore year the reading period began to take on for me something of the significance intended by its sponsors. The value of an uninterrupted period when the loose threads of a course could be gathered together into a coherent whole became more apparent. The opportunity to think about what had been given more or less piecemeal in scattered hours of lectures and reading also proved valuable. The training in the exercise of native intelligence to find for one's self the vital points in a subject made study more of an adventure of exploration than an exercise in memory.

By the middle of my Junior year the methods of analyzing historical and literary subjects had become more clear to me, and the reading period was proportionately more beneficial. It was not so much the reading assigned that produced this result as the cessation of the many interruptions incident to the lecture system. From the opening of the Christmas holidays to the end of the examination period there were some six weeks when I had no academic engagements beyond four examinations toward the end of the period. This time gave an opportunity to stop digging out material and look back over the work of the half-year as a whole. Much that was minor could then be seen in true perspective, while the main developments could be studied with care. Such a result is difficult to achieve when lectures continue right up to the examinations. As Charles E. Hughes said in a recent address in Boston, "Students need time to think." The reading period is an effort to meet this need.

The fact that the reading period is meaning more to me as my background deepens indicates that the plan is best suited to mature students. With the inspiration of authorities and experts given in lectures, where the method of reaching the heart of a subject is illustrated, we are ready to profit by the short interval of independent application of what we have learned. In fact, after graduation, our study will be one long reading period, and this preparation enables us to perfect our technique of independent study.

## THE POST-SCHOOL CAREERS OF HIGH-SCHOOL LEADERS AND HIGH-SCHOOL SCHOLARS<sup>1</sup>

J. R. SHANNON

Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana

A graduate seminar in high-school administration at the Indiana State Teachers College chose as its subject a study of three groups of graduates of one of the city schools in Terre Haute. One group was composed of high-school leaders; one group was composed of pupils on the honor roll; and the third group was a random sampling of pupils, most of whom were neither leaders nor scholars. The details of procedure followed in obtaining and treating the data are outlined in abbreviated form as follows:

1. Gathering the data.
  - a) The high school selected and the period of time covered.
    - (1) Convenience dictated that a high school in Terre Haute be used. Since both the writer and a number of the members of the seminar were more familiar with the Garfield High School and its past history, that school was selected.
    - (2) The longer a class is out of school, the more difficult it becomes to locate its members. Therefore, it seemed advisable to study pupils in recent classes. On the other hand, graduates of recent classes have not yet reached an age where it is sufficiently clear what they will be able to make of themselves. One criterion argues for recent classes, and one argues for classes out of school longer. An additional factor favoring the selection of recent classes is that the assistance of teachers in the Garfield High School was needed in determining which pupils were leaders; the more recent the class, the better is the opportunity to find teach-

<sup>1</sup> Acknowledgment for assistance in the investigation here reported is gratefully extended to the following graduate students in the Indiana State Teachers College: Zoe L. English, Blinn M. Fox, William C. Hall, G. Lawrence Jones, Mabel G. Phillips, Katherine U. Rogers, Herschel O. Royer, and Bernice F. Stantz.

ers who were teaching in the school at the time of the period selected. As a compromise between the opposing criteria, the most recent class used was the class of 1919. The members of this class had been out of high school ten years, and ten years after graduation from high school is a long enough period to indicate what a graduate is going to amount to.

- (3) The Garfield High School was founded in 1912. Its first class graduated in 1913. The members of this class were not included in this study, however, because there were practically no leaders in the group; they published no high-school annual which would indicate who the leaders were; they had been in the school only one year; and only a very few teachers who were teaching in the school in 1912-13 were still in service there. The classes of 1914-19, inclusive, are therefore the ones studied.
- b) Only high-school graduates were considered in order to keep the three groups under consideration more nearly comparable. Furthermore, it was easier to get data about graduates than to get data about non-graduates.
- c) Two methods of determining the personnel of the leader group were employed. One was to analyze the school annuals for 1914-19 to see which pupils held such positions of prominence as editorships, class presidencies, athletic captaincies, and presidencies of organizations. At all times an effort was made to distinguish between leadership and mere prominence. The other method was to furnish to each teacher who was teaching in the school during the period of six years studied a list of the members of the six classes and a set of uniform instructions as to how to indicate those who had been leaders in their high-school days. A leader was defined as a "pupil who was prominent in various school activities and whose ability and influence were recognized by other members of his class and by the faculty of the school." The teachers were urged to act on their impressions of the graduates while they were in school, not on the basis of their information about the pupils since their graduation. Each teacher voted independently. Votes

were obtained from eight teachers and from the principal of the school. The results of the analysis of the school annuals were regarded as equal to the vote of one teacher. Thus, there were ten independent judgments for each graduate. All graduates who received five or more "votes" were included in the leader group. Such graduates number somewhat less than 10 per cent of the total number.

- d) Determining the personnel of the scholarship group was simple. Each year the school publishes an honor roll. The highest 10 per cent of each class in scholarship is called the scholar group. Data obtained by means of standardized intelligence and achievement tests were not on file for the graduates studied.
- e) The random group was made up by selecting every tenth pupil from the alphabetical list of the members of each graduating class. If the pupil selected happened to be colored, the next white pupil was substituted. Thus, there were no colored pupils in any of the groups.
- f) Measuring success in post-school careers is a debatable matter. Many factors are purely subjective. In the effort to select the most valid and reliable measures, the following were agreed on: occupation, net annual income, academic degrees, special honors, outstanding achievements, publications, and evidences of community leadership. "Special honors" covers membership in Phi Beta Kappa or other honor society, distinguished military service medal, etc. "Outstanding achievements" includes military or naval commissions, victories in public elections or nation-wide contests, etc. "Evidences of community leadership" includes Sunday-school superintendencies, masterships of lodges, Boy Scout masterships, etc. Someone has said that these measures of success are especially adapted to school teachers. Perhaps this person is right, but he suggested no better measures.
- g) The facts about each high-school graduate were secured principally by means of personal interviews with the graduates themselves; their parents or other relatives, employers, and close friends; and registrars of colleges. One source was not



accepted as final in case of doubt. Letters to some of the graduates themselves were used to supplement the data obtained in interviews.

- h)* Not all the graduates sought in this study could be located. It is interesting to note that the leaders were more easily found than were the others. A further significant fact is that the percentage of scholars who had died was greater than the percentage of leaders or members of the random group who had died.
  - i)* Nine different persons conducted the interviews. Each person was assigned the high-school graduates concerning whom he thought he could most easily obtain data.
  - j)* Since the interviews were conducted by nine different persons, some lack of uniformity of judgment might exist concerning the less objective measures listed under *f*. To correct this, a committee went over the data carefully and critically and discarded all facts which were less acceptable than those recorded by the most conservative of the nine interviewers.
2. Treating the data.
- a)* Information could not be obtained for all the measures of success for every graduate. When the percentages were computed and the central tendencies for each measure of success were determined for the three groups of graduates, therefore, only those cases were included for which data were at hand.
  - b)* Some graduates were included in more than one group. Each such case was counted as one in each group. Only one graduate was included in all three groups.
  - c)* When the occupations of the members of the three groups were tabulated, only the present occupations were considered, the assumption being that each change of occupation was for the better.
  - d)* The median was used as the measure of central tendency of the net incomes to avoid the skewing effect of extreme cases.
  - e)* Comparing the median net incomes of the three groups presented a particularly delicate problem. Should the comparison be made on the basis of calendar years or on the basis of the number of years out of high school? The weakness of

using calendar years as the basis for comparison is that in any one year persons are included in a group who have been out of high school varying numbers of years. If the percentages of each class represented in the three groups were approximately equal, this weakness would disappear, but, if one group has a larger proportion of older graduates than another group for a particular year, the comparison may be unfair. The weakness of using the number of years out of high school as the basis for comparison is that the fluctuating value of the dollar before and after the era of war prices renders comparisons unfair. Each group in such a comparison would include graduates whose earnings were based on different economic standards. After a study of the relative merits of the two bases for comparison, it was decided to use the calendar years.

- f) Since this is a man's world economically and women's incomes do not always compare favorably with men's, the men graduates are treated by themselves in one comparison of net incomes. This distinction is necessary because there are more men leaders than women and more women scholars than men.
- g) The comparisons of net income are less valid before the year 1919-20 than after that year since the three groups were not complete until after that time. Therefore, the tables and the figures showing these comparisons should be interpreted accordingly.
- h) Commencement occurs each year at the Garfield High School in June. The annual incomes were therefore determined from June to June instead of from January to January.

If space permitted, it would be desirable to show in tabular form the complete data for each graduate. Economy of space demands, however, that only summary tables and figures be presented.

Table I shows the occupations last followed. As might be expected, that of housewife is most common for the graduates as a whole. This classification includes only the married women who are not working full time in some capacity outside the home. If a married woman is a full-time teacher, for example, she is classified as a teacher and not as a housewife. Teaching and engineering are second and third in frequency for the graduates as a whole. With-

out question, the reason for the rank of these professions is the proximity of training facilities for them. The Indiana State Teachers College and the Rose Polytechnic Institute are located at Terre Haute. Under engineering are included three types—electrical, civil, and chemical.

TABLE I  
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRADUATES IN THE THREE GROUPS ACCORDING  
TO SEX AND OCCUPATION

OCCUPATION	LEADERS			SCHOLARS			RANDOM GROUP			TOTAL*		
	Men	Wom- en	Total	Men	Wom- en	Total	Men	Wom- en	Total	Men	Wom- en	Total
Housewife.....		6	6		7	7		8	8		18	18
Teacher.....	4	1	5	3	10	13	1	3	4	5	12	17
Engineer.....				4		4		6		10		10
Clerical work.....		1	1		3	3	1	1	2	1	4	5
Lawyer.....	2		2	1		1				3		3
Salesman.....							2	1	3	2	1	3
Physician.....	1		1	1		1	2		2	2		2
Clergyman.....	2		2							2		2
Mail carrier.....	1		1				1		1	2		2
Dentist.....	1		1				1		1	1		1
Insurance agent.....	1		1							1		1
Lumberman.....	1		1							1		1
Manufacturer.....	1		1							1		1
Linotypist.....	1		1							1		1
Broker.....	1		1							1		1
Artist.....		1	1		1	1					1	1
Journalist.....					1	1					1	1
Treasurer.....				1		1				1		1
Oil-station attendant.....							1		1	1		1
Metallographist.....							1		1	1		1
Merchant.....							1		1	1		1
Superintendent of ce- ment works.....							1		1	1		1
Theatrical booker.....								1	1		1	1
Total.....	16	9	25	10	22	32	18	14	32	38	38	76

\* The total does not always equal the sum for the three groups because graduates belonging to more than one group are counted once in each group.

It is useless to attempt to discover from Table I which of the three groups excels in the matter of occupational choice, for there are no standards for determining relative excellency of occupations. However, it is noteworthy that no leaders became engineers or salesmen, two of the more common occupations, and that, although there are fewer leaders than scholars or members of the random group, the leaders are following a wider range of occupations.

The comparisons of the net annual incomes are more indicative. Tables II and III and Figures 1 and 2 present these comparisons. It will be noticed that the comparisons of the three groups as wholes

TABLE II  
MEDIAN ANNUAL INCOMES OF THE MEMBERS OF EACH OF THE THREE GROUPS  
FROM 1914-15 TO 1928-29, INCLUSIVE

YEAR	LEADERS		SCHOLARS		RANDOM GROUP	
	Number	Median Income	Number	Median Income	Number	Median Income
1914-15.....	4	\$ 500	.....	.....	1	\$ 300
1915-16.....	4	500	.....	.....	1	300
1916-17.....	6	580	.....	.....	1	300
1917-18.....	10	625	2	\$ 540	2	530
1918-19.....	13	800	6	600	10	930
1919-20.....	13	1,000	9	750	13	1,200
1920-21.....	16	1,500	8	1,050	14	1,380
1921-22.....	19	1,500	9	1,280	15	1,370
1922-23.....	19	1,680	14	1,320	20	1,530
1923-24.....	20	1,850	15	1,450	22	1,715
1924-25.....	20	2,000	14	1,600	22	1,810
1925-26.....	19	2,520	14	1,675	20	2,000
1926-27.....	18	2,625	13	1,700	18	2,300
1927-28.....	17	2,880	14	2,045	19	2,800
1928-29.....	19	3,000	14	2,103	19	2,900

TABLE III  
MEDIAN ANNUAL INCOMES OF THE MEN IN EACH OF THE THREE GROUPS FROM  
1914-15 TO 1928-29, INCLUSIVE

YEAR	LEADERS		SCHOLARS		RANDOM GROUP	
	Number	Median Income	Number	Median Income	Number	Median Income
1914-15.....	3	\$ 500	.....	.....	1	\$ 300
1915-16.....	3	500	.....	.....	1	300
1916-17.....	6	560	.....	.....	1	300
1917-18.....	7	402	1	600	1	800
1918-19.....	8	900	2	700	5	1,000
1919-20.....	8	1,675	1	600	8	1,100
1920-21.....	11	2,000	3	1,500	8	1,750
1921-22.....	13	2,100	5	1,800	9	1,800
1922-23.....	14	2,000	8	1,668	12	1,790
1923-24.....	14	2,205	8	1,900	13	1,800
1924-25.....	15	2,400	8	2,183	14	1,925
1925-26.....	15	2,800	10	2,388	14	2,300
1926-27.....	14	2,750	10	2,500	14	2,450
1927-28.....	14	3,250	10	2,790	14	3,000
1928-29.....	16	3,450	10	3,000	14	3,000

and the comparisons of the men alone both show the leaders excelling and the scholars tending toward the bottom. That the exclu-

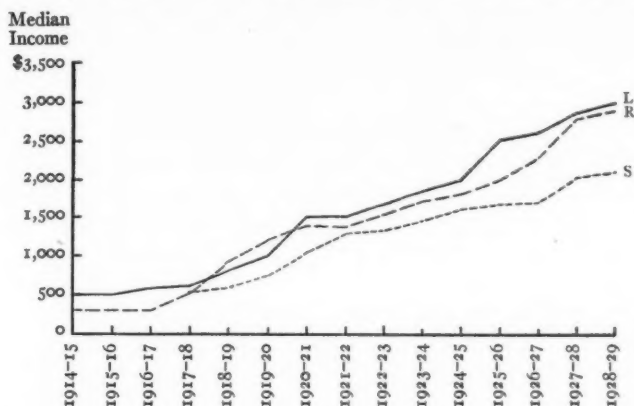


FIG. 1.—Median annual incomes of the members of each of the three groups from 1914-15 to 1928-29, inclusive (L, leaders; R, random group; S, scholars).

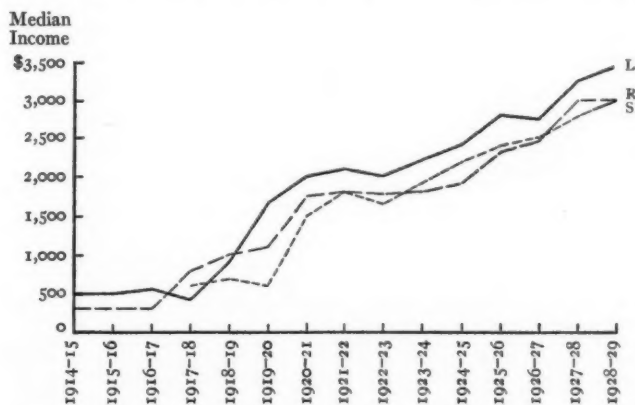


FIG. 2.—Median annual incomes of the men in each of the three groups from 1914-15 to 1928-29, inclusive (L, leaders; R, random group; S, scholars).

sion of women from the comparisons makes the scholars more nearly equal in income to the random group is explained by the fact that

many women scholars became teachers, and teachers are poorly paid.

TABLE IV  
DATA CONCERNING MEASURES OF SUCCESS OTHER THAN INCOME

	LEADERS		SCHOLARS		RANDOM GROUP	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Number of cases.....	27	.....	35	.....	30	.....
Academic degrees:						
D.D.S. ....	1	4	0	0	1	3
B.A. or B.S. ....	14	52	19	54	16	53
Additional baccalaureate degrees.....	3	11	2	6	1	3
M.A. or M.S. ....	2	7	4	11	2	7
Ch.E.* .....	0	0	1	3	0	0
Ph.D. or M.D. ....	2	7	1	3	2	7
Special honors:						
One.....	4	15	4	11	3	10
Two.....	3	11	3	9	1	3
Three.....	1	4	1	3	2	7
Four.....	0	0	1	3	0	0
Five.....	1	4	1	3	0	0
Publications:						
Books†.....	1	4	0	0	1	3
Pamphlets‡.....	0	0	0	0	1	3
Magazine articles§.....	2	7	1	3	2	7
Editorials.....	0	0	1	3	0	0
Outstanding accomplishments:						
One.....	10	37	7	20	8	27
Two.....	2	7	2	6	3	10
Three.....	2	7	0	0	1	3
Four.....	0	0	1	3	0	0
Evidences of community service or leadership:						
One.....	8	30	5	14	3	10
Two.....	1	4	1	3	0	0
Three.....	2	7	0	0	0	0
Four.....	1	4	0	0	0	0
Five.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
Six.....	1	4	1	3	1	3

\* An honorary degree.

† The numbers of books produced by the members of the three groups are 1, 0, and 3, respectively.

‡ The numbers of pamphlets produced by the members of the three groups are 0, 0, and 2, respectively.

§ The numbers of magazine articles produced by the members of the three groups are 12, 2, and 5, respectively.

The comparisons of measures of success other than income presented in Table IV also show a general tendency toward superiority on the part of the leaders.

## CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this investigation cannot be regarded as conclusive. Certain limitations, such as the relatively small number of cases, the relatively short period of time covered, and the subjectivity of success, make further study desirable. However, a few definite tendencies are apparent.

1. The graduates of the Garfield High School who were leaders in the pupil activities in high school have made a better showing in most of the respects measured than have the scholars or the members of the random group.

2. The graduates who were on the honor roll have not succeeded as well in one-half of the respects measured as have the members of the random group. In general, it seems that the scholars are the least successful in post-school life. The scholars seem to be able to excel in book-learning more than in productive work, and it is productive work that is more conducive to success out of school.

3. It seems that whatever it is that is necessary for success in the high school is not the factor that is requisite for success in life. This finding is the most important discovery made by the present investigation.

4. Whatever is required to excel in the extra-curriculum life of the high school seems to be the same thing that contributes most to success later.

5. The findings of this investigation do not constitute an indictment of life. They constitute an indictment of the high school. They suggest the need for curricular adjustment.



## EXTENSIVE READING VERSUS INTENSIVE STUDY OF LITERATURE

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### THE PROBLEM

The experiment here reported involved more than two hundred pupils in six ninth-grade classes in the Hyde Park High School, Chicago, and four members of the English department. The problem may be stated as follows: For achieving the aims of instruction in literature, is the extensive reading of literature more effective than the intensive study of a few selections?

By "intensive study" is meant the type of study which has generally characterized literature courses in American high schools and colleges and which is common in the greater number of such institutions today. The method is marked by detailed study of the content of literature: references and allusions to mythology, history, biography, geography, nature-study, and antecedent literature. Intensive study of literature is also marked by detailed study of style: figures of speech, meter, rhyme schemes, anachronisms, and the like. Word study plays a large part in the intensive method: meanings, derivations, use of words in sentences, antique diction, poetic diction, obsolete words, and exactness in the choice of words. In brief, the intensive method might very well be defined in terms of encyclopedic knowledge. The technique of instruction under this method consists of daily assignments, home study, and recitations. The recitations are predominantly of the question-and-answer type. The amount of literature which can be studied intensively is necessarily limited, and, when a pupil has completed a high-school course under this method, the extent of his reading is slight as compared with the bodies of suitable literature available. A teacher following this method may bring a great deal of scholarship and skill to bear on his undertaking, but, fundamentally, the method leads only to preparation of lessons for recitation. Individual pupils may be attracted

by literature, and, independent of any stimulation from the teacher, they may read widely. Such an outcome, however, is purely fortuitous and somewhat exceptional.

In contrast with the intensive-study method, the extensive-reading method emphasizes the natural contacts with literature, such as are maintained by intelligent adults. These natural contacts include silent reading in class and out of class, oral (interpretative) reading by both the teacher and the pupils, and memorization of selections chosen by the pupils under suitable direction. Instead of emphasizing details, the teacher attempts to help the pupils to understand the broad, general meanings of a given selection. Class discussions grow naturally out of the reading experiences of the pupils. These discussions are held whenever the pupils have read a considerable body of literature of a given type and have reached a level from which they have a certain degree of literary perspective. For instance, after having read rather widely in the field of narrative poetry, pupils in an extensive-reading class might be asked to discuss those poems which they like best. In connection with another block of literature, the pupils might be asked to discuss such a subject as "An Interesting Character in Fiction" or "The Best Adventure Story I Have Read." Any theme selected for discussion should be the outgrowth of the recent reading experiences of the pupils. One of the characteristics of the extensive-reading procedure, therefore, is the absence of the daily recitation and the substitution of silent-reading periods interspersed with occasional discussions that grow out of the reading experiences of the pupils.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE EXPERIMENT

The idea of comparing the two methods of teaching in the field of English grew out of a number of years of experience in teaching literature and efforts to adjust classroom procedure to rational attitudes toward pupils and toward the subject matter of literature instruction. The writer secured the co-operation of three of his colleagues in the English department, and the experiment was carried on by the group of four teachers.

*Control technique.*—The ninth-grade classes participating in the experiment were divided into two sections. The first section con-

sisted of two classes under the instruction of the writer; the second section, of four classes under the instruction of the teachers who co-operated with the writer. In the first section the methods were alternated. The writer's third-period class was subjected to the extensive-reading method and his fifth-period class to the intensive-study method during the first ten weeks of the semester; the methods were reversed during the second ten weeks. In this way the factors of teacher personality and class personnel were eliminated as variables. There was only one variable, namely, the technique of instruction. The device of alternating the methods with the same classes and the same teacher is a salient feature of the experiment, but the critical-minded reader may point out that a complicating factor is introduced, namely, the personal bias or interest of the experimenter. Conceivably, this bias or interest might blind the experimenter to significant features of the results or might modify his teaching effectiveness in one or the other of the classes. To avoid the consequences of this error, the teachers in the other section of the experiment followed for the entire semester their usual methods, in which they sincerely believed. In two of the classes the extensive-reading method was used; in the other two classes, the intensive-study method.

The results of experimental teaching are not significant unless the pupils in the experimental groups are of comparable ability. Because homogeneous grouping of pupils is not practiced at the Hyde Park High School, another device for securing comparable groups had to be used. Pupils of comparable ability were paired, and the test data relating to the pupils who were not so paired were eliminated. Four criteria were selected for use in pairing the pupils: general intelligence as measured by the Otis Group Intelligence Scale, reading comprehension as measured by the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Tests, word knowledge as measured by the Inglis Tests of English Vocabulary, and marks in English for the preceding semester. The pairing of pupils was carried out in each section of the experiment. In Section 1 there were thirty-seven pupils in each of the two classes. In Section 2 there were sixty-five pupils in the two classes taught by the extensive-reading method and sixty-two pupils in the two classes taught by the intensive-study method. The two contrasted groups in each section were ranked in

ability according to the four criteria selected. The method of pairing the pupils is illustrated in Tables I and II. Table I shows the

TABLE I  
SCORES, PARTIAL RATINGS, AND INDEX NUMBERS OF FOUR PUPILS  
IN CLASS AX-BY AND OF FOUR PUPILS IN CLASS AY-BX\*

PUPIL	SCORES				PARTIAL RATINGS				INDEX NUM- BER
	Otis Scale	Monroe Test	Inglis Test	English Marks	Otis Scale	Monroe Test	Inglis Test	English Marks	
	Class AX-BY								
1.....	109	64	63	E	1	1	1	2	5
2.....	75	26	10	G	4	3	4	3	14
3.....	74	28	27	F	4	3	4	4	15
4.....	81	20	22	G	3	4	4	3	14
	Class AY-BX								
1.....	91	36	45	G	2	2	2	3	9
2.....	98	36	37	S	1	2	3	1	7
3.....	109	22	20	E	1	4	4	2	11
4.....	74	19	26	F	4	4	4	4	16

\* Classes AX-BY and AY-BX are the two classes that were taught by the writer.

TABLE II  
INDEX NUMBERS OF TWENTY-SIX PAIRS OF PUPILS  
IN CLASSES AX-BY AND AY-BX

Pair	Index Number of Each Pupil	Pair	Index Number of Each Pupil
1.....	4	14.....	10
2.....	5	15.....	10
3.....	6	16.....	10
4.....	7	17.....	10
5.....	7	18.....	11
6.....	7	19.....	12
7.....	7	20.....	12
8.....	8	21.....	13
9.....	8	22.....	14
10.....	9	23.....	15
11.....	9	24.....	15
12.....	9	25.....	15
13.....	10	26.....	16

scores, partial ratings, and composite ratings, or index numbers, of four pupils in each of the two classes in Section 1. Each pupil in the highest quarter of his group according to his intelligence quotient

was given a partial rating of 1; each pupil in the second quarter, a partial rating of 2; each pupil in the third quarter, a partial rating of 3; and each pupil in the fourth quarter, a partial rating of 4. Partial ratings based on the scores on the Monroe reading test and the Inglis vocabulary test were given in a similar manner. The English marks of the preceding semester were on a four-level basis—S, E, G, and F in descending order. Partial ratings were assigned for these marks as follows: S=1, E=2, G=3, and F=4. The sum of the four partial ratings gave a composite rating, or index number. The index numbers varied from 4 for the best pupils to 16 for the poorest. Pupils who could not be paired with pupils having the same index numbers in the opposed group were eliminated from consideration in the test results. The index numbers of the pupils in the resulting groups are shown in Table II. The method of assigning partial ratings and index numbers in Section 2 was exactly the same as that in the case of Section 1.

The control technique had two other major features. First, the experimental teaching involved all the types of literature commonly taught in the ninth grade. The comprehensiveness of the experiment renders the results more significant. Second, a large number of criteria were used in judging the results of the experiment. As an additional precaution to insure conclusive evidence, the test papers were scored by an impartial outsider, who knew nothing of the purpose of the experiment. The following, then, are the chief features of the control technique of the experiment: (1) alternation of the methods with the same teacher and the same pupils, (2) comparison of the two methods under teachers who followed their regular class procedures, (3) pairing of pupils of comparable ability as determined by four significant criteria, (4) the use of the full round of literature commonly studied in the ninth grade, and (5) the use of many criteria in determining the results of the contrasted methods of teaching.

#### MEASURING THE RESULTS

The criteria used in determining the results of the experiment are as follows: (1) tests of the pupils' comprehension of the basic part of the literature course, that is, of the selections read by all the classes; (2) tests of the pupils' memory of the basic part of the litera-

ture course; (3) improvement in reading comprehension as measured by the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Tests; (4) improvement in word knowledge as measured by the Inglis Tests of English Vocabulary; (5) stenographic reports of recitations in extensive-reading classes and in intensive-study classes; (6) anonymous pupil comments on the semester's work, made during the last week of the semester; and (7) records of the reading done by the extensive-reading classes.

All the classes involved in the experiment read the same selections as the basic part of their work. In addition, the extensive-reading classes read a large variety of material similar to the basic work. The tests in literature involved only the basic part of the work. Five of the tests were comprehension tests, and two were recall or memory tests.

*Tests in literature.*—The first block of literature read consisted of short stories. Ten stories were read by all the pupils. A test based on these stories was given. This was a short-answer memory test constructed by the teachers involved in the experiment. The second block of literature read by the classes consisted of narrative poems. One of the poems read, namely, Byron's "The Destruction of Sennacherib," was selected for testing purposes. The test used, an adaptation of one used by Irion,<sup>1</sup> was a multiple-answer test and consisted of three parts: (1) comprehension of facts expressed in the poem, (2) comprehension of expressions or groups of words used in the poem, and (3) comprehension of words used in the poem. In addition, a test was constructed by the writer dealing with a poem not previously read by any of the pupils, namely, Byron's "The Eve of Waterloo." This test, likewise a comprehension test,<sup>2</sup> was constructed on the same plan as the test last described. The third block of literature read consisted of novels and other long stories. The one novel read by all the classes was *Ivanhoe*, from which the seventh chapter was selected for testing purposes. In this case also the test used was a multiple-answer comprehension

<sup>1</sup> Theo. W. H. Irion, *Comprehension Difficulties of Ninth Grade Students in the Study of Literature*, pp. 7-9, 80-116. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 189. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925.

<sup>2</sup> By "comprehension test" is meant one in which the pupils had the selection before them during the test.

test which followed Irion's model. The fourth block of literature consisted of Shakespeare's dramas with *Julius Caesar* as the basic play. The test used by Irion in his study was used as a comprehension test. Furthermore, a memory test dealing with the entire play was given; this test was an adaptation of one used by Coryell.<sup>1</sup> The last test was a "central-thought" test of a type devised by Cavins.<sup>2</sup> In this test a number of short poems were placed in the hands of the pupils with the direction that they were to select from each poem the lines that express the central thought or theme of the poem.

#### RESULTS

*Test results.*—Since the intensive-study classes spent from two to six times as many class hours on each selection as did the extensive-reading classes and since the teachers of the intensive-study classes emphasized elements of knowledge and the finer points of comprehension to a far greater extent than did the teachers of the extensive-reading classes, it seemed reasonable to expect the intensive-study classes to make higher scores on the tests than the extensive-reading classes. In fact, if the additional time spent by the intensive-study classes on the individual selections is to be justified, justification must be made in terms of increments of knowledge and comprehension. Negatively stated, unless the intensive-study classes can show marked superiority in comprehension and memory of the details of the selections studied, the method of intensive study cannot be successfully defended.

Table III shows the mean scores of the two classes in Section I of the experiment on the tests given during the first ten weeks of the semester. These two classes, it will be remembered, were taught by the writer, and the two methods of instruction were alternated. All the differences between the scores are negative, or unfavorable to the extensive-reading class, but they are subject to comparison with similar differences during the second half of the experiment.

<sup>1</sup> Nancy Gillmore Coryell, *An Evaluation of Extensive and Intensive Teaching of Literature*, pp. 186-89. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 275. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

<sup>2</sup> Lorimer Victor Cavins, *Standardization of American Poetry for School Purposes*, pp. 21-34. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1928.



Table IV shows the mean scores of the two classes on the tests given during the second ten weeks of the experiment. The group of pupils designated as Class AX, or extensive-reading class, of the first ten weeks is designated as Class BY, or intensive-study class, of the second ten weeks. Similarly, Class AY of the first ten weeks is designated as Class BX of the second ten weeks. The differences between the scores are almost all positive or favorable to the extensive-reading class. In other words, the same group of pupils which surpassed under the intensive-study method continued to surpass under the extensive-reading method. This fact suggests several

TABLE III  
MEAN PERCENTAGE SCORES OF CLASSES AX AND AY ON  
TESTS 1-3 GIVEN DURING THE FIRST TEN WEEKS  
OF THE SEMESTER

	Class AX (Extensive- Reading Method)	Class AY (Intensive- Study Method)	Difference
Test 1.....	67.9	76.5	- 8.6
Test 2:*			
A.....	57.3	65.4	- 8.1
B.....	64.4	75.4	- 11.0
C.....	66.7	69.6	- 2.9
Test 3:*			
A.....	57.3	59.6	- 2.3
B.....	80.4	83.8	- 3.4
C.....	75.0	81.5	- 6.5

\* A, B, and C represent, respectively, the fact-comprehension, the expression, and the word-comprehension sections of the test.

possible explanations. The conclusion might be that Class AY-BX was more successful during the entire semester because of the intensive teaching and study during the first ten weeks. This is not a tenable hypothesis for the following reasons. The writer examined the records of the two classes in all subjects for the entire semester and found that the group of pupils which tended to do better work in literature was far more successful than the contrasted group in subjects other than literature. Furthermore, the method of extensive reading for the sake of enjoyment rather than the intensive-study method constituted an approach to literature that was new to most of the pupils. If either method of teaching suffered from initial difficulties, therefore, that method was the extensive-reading method.

TABLE IV  
MEAN PERCENTAGE\* SCORES OF CLASSES BX AND BY  
ON TESTS 4-7 GIVEN DURING THE SECOND TEN  
WEEKS OF THE SEMESTER

	Class BX (Extensive- Reading Method)	Class BY (Intensive- Study Method)	Difference
Test 4:†			
A.....	58.5	53.8	4.7
B.....	63.8	72.3	- 8.5
C.....	54.0	55.8	- 1.8
Test 5:†			
A.....	51.9	35.0	16.9
B.....	66.2	63.5	2.7
C.....	59.4	51.3	8.1
Test 6.....	80.8	77.3	3.5
Test 7.....	2.5	2.42	0.08

\* The scores are given in percentages except in the case of Test 7.

† A, B, and C represent, respectively, the fact-comprehension, the expression-comprehension, and the word-comprehension sections of the test.

TABLE V  
MEAN PERCENTAGE\* SCORES OF CLASSES CX AND CY ON  
TESTS 1-7

	Classes CX (Extensive- Reading Method)	Classes CY (Intensive- Study Method)	Difference
Test 1.....	68.7	72.8	- 4.1
Test 2:†			
A.....	62.1	66.6	- 4.5
B.....	62.1	66.5	- 4.4
C.....	71.5	74.5	- 3.0
Test 3:†			
A.....	80.4	79.6	0.8
B.....	83.4	83.0	0.4
C.....	57.2	58.5	- 1.3
Test 4:†			
A.....	56.6	49.8	6.8
B.....	61.5	61.7	- 0.2
C.....	52.3	43.0	9.3
Test 5:†			
A.....	33.2	45.7	-12.5
B.....	69.9	68.0	1.9
C.....	54.0	50.9	3.1
Test 6.....	73.0	57.0	16.0
Test 7.....	2.51	2.33	0.18

\* The scores are given in percentages except in the case of Test 7.

† A, B, and C represent, respectively, the fact-comprehension, the expression-comprehension, and the word-comprehension sections of the test.

The mean scores of the classes under the instruction of the teachers associated with the writer are presented in Table V. A careful study of the data shows the following facts: first, in only two cases are the differences between the scores large enough to be statistically significant, namely, in Section A of Test 5 and in Test 6; second, the extensive-reading classes surpassed the intensive-study classes as frequently as the intensive-study classes surpassed the extensive-reading classes; third, the positive differences are slightly greater than the negative differences; fourth, the intensive-study classes tended to make higher scores on the early tests while the extensive-reading classes tended to make higher scores on the later tests.

The question arises: Does one method succeed better than the other with either the more proficient pupils or the less proficient pupils? If the "more proficient pupils" are those who made higher scores on the tests in literature, a comparison of the more proficient pupils in the two groups may be made by means of the upper quartiles of the test scores. Similarly, a comparison of the lower quartiles should give a measure of the success of the less proficient pupils. These comparisons were made by the writer and are reported in the complete account of the experiment.<sup>1</sup> The results of the comparisons of the upper quartiles and of the lower quartiles parallel very closely the results of the comparisons of the means. This statement applies both to the classes taught by the writer and to the classes under the instruction of the teachers associated with the writer. No evidence exists, therefore, that the intensive-study method resulted in superior comprehension or recall on the part of the better or the poorer pupils.

The data presented indicate that there was no significant difference in the comprehension of literature attained by the intensive-study classes and the extensive-reading classes; neither was there any significant difference in the ability of the two groups to remember the details of the selections read. In other words, the additional time spent on the individual selections of literature by the intensive-study groups did not yield results as measured by the criteria used.

<sup>1</sup> Ralph R. Williams, "A Comparative Study of Extensive and Intensive Teaching of Literature in the Ninth Grade," pp. 61-63, 82-84. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1928.

In January Form 2, Test III, of the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Tests and Form A of the Inglis Tests of English Vocabulary were given to all the pupils involved in the experiment. In June Form 1 of the Monroe tests and Form B of the Inglis tests were given to all the pupils. All the classes made higher scores in June than in January. Since only Classes CX and CY followed the same method for the entire semester, these classes only will be considered. In reading comprehension the median improvement in the CX, or extensive-reading, classes was 3.0 and in the CY, or intensive-study, classes, 7.0. The difference is too small to be statistically significant. In the case of the mean improvement there is even less variation between the two groups, the mean improvement of the extensive-reading classes being 5.5 and of the intensive-study classes, 6.1. In vocabulary knowledge the extensive-reading classes showed a median improvement of 8.6 and the intensive-study classes, only 1.5. No marked advantage may be claimed for either group on the basis of the results of the standardized tests. Since the testing program failed to yield definitive evidence, any final conclusions must be based on criteria other than test results.

*Objective evidence other than test results.*—There are three types of evidence other than test results, namely, stenographic reports of class recitations in the CX and the CY classes, anonymous pupil comments on the work of the entire semester, and records of the reading done by the extensive-reading classes. The data are presented fully in the complete report of the experiment. A detailed examination of the evidence was made in the light of the objectives of instruction in literature as presented by Crow<sup>1</sup> and Hosis.<sup>2</sup> Only the inferences drawn from the evidence will be presented here.

The stenographic reports indicate (1) that the CX pupils, who were taught by the extensive-reading method, discovered more material that held interest and meaning for them, (2) that the CX pupils had a greater store of ideas, (3) that the CX pupils had a greater

<sup>1</sup> Charles Sumner Crow, *Evaluation of English Literature in the High School*, p. 8. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 141. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924.

<sup>2</sup> James Fleming Hosis, *Empirical Studies in Reading*, pp. 1-23. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 114. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1921.

intensity of interest, (4) that the CX pupils had greater freedom in speaking and greater power for sustained expression, and (5) that the type of recitation held in the CX classes is more in keeping with the objectives of instruction in literature as stated in the writings of educational and literary leaders.

The anonymous pupil comments were carefully analyzed with reference to the specific reasons given for liking or not liking the literature read or the manner of study and recitation. A summary of the results of the analysis of these comments is as follows: (1) Only six pupils in the intensive-study classes and only two pupils in the extensive-reading classes condemned the semester's work from the standpoint of interest. (2) Sixty favorable statements were made by the pupils in the intensive-study classes and 102 by the pupils in the extensive-reading classes. (3) Eighty comments of pupils in the extensive-reading classes mentioned the formation of a habit of reading or pleasure resulting from the various reading activities as compared with only thirty-seven comments in the case of the pupils in the intensive-study classes. (4) Eleven pupils in the intensive-study classes and only five pupils in the extensive-reading classes mentioned the acquisition of worth-while knowledge. (5) Eighteen definite unfavorable criticisms of the literature course were made by the pupils in the intensive-study classes and only six by the pupils in the extensive-reading classes.

In the CY classes, which followed the intensive-study method, the work of the entire semester was devoted to the reading, study, and discussion of fifteen narrative poems, ten short stories, one novel, and one drama. In the CX classes, which followed the extensive-reading method, the median number of selections read was as follows: narrative poems, forty; short stories, nineteen; novels, ten; and dramas, three. The data presented in Table VI show that the reading experience of the pupils in the CX classes was many times that of the pupils in the CY classes. The amount of literature read by the pupils in the AX and BX classes was comparable to the amount read by the pupils in the CX classes. Since the AX and BX classes followed the extensive-reading plan for only half a semester instead of a whole semester, the data relating to the extent of their reading are not presented.

*Pedagogical implications.*—Since the conditions of this investigation were materially different from those under which Hosic and Coryell worked, since the methods of controlling extraneous factors were different in the three investigations, and since the results obtained in this study corroborate the findings of Hosic and of Coryell,

TABLE VI  
DATA WITH REGARD TO THE NUMBER OF NARRATIVE POEMS,  
SHORT STORIES, AND NOVELS OR LONGER STORIES READ  
AND REPORTED ON BY PUPILS IN THE CX CLASSES

Number of Narrative Poems Read	Number of Pupils	Number of Short Stories Read	Number of Pupils	Number of Novels or Longer Stories Read	Number of Pupils
83.....	1	32.....	2	99.....	1
54.....	1	20.....	1	40.....	1
52.....	1	28.....	1	33.....	1
50.....	2	26.....	2	31.....	1
49.....	1	25.....	3	30.....	1
48.....	1	24.....	3	27.....	1
47.....	1	23.....	5	26.....	1
46.....	1	21.....	4	23.....	2
45.....	4	20.....	11	21.....	1
44.....	1	19.....	3	20.....	4
43.....	3	18.....	8	19.....	1
42.....	1	17.....	6	16.....	1
41.....	4	16.....	2	15.....	2
40.....	11	15.....	10	14.....	8
38.....	2	14.....	3	12.....	1
37.....	2	12.....	1	11.....	4
36.....	2			10.....	3
35.....	8			9.....	1
34.....	3			8.....	1
32.....	3			7.....	10
31.....	12			6.....	3
				4.....	13
				3.....	3

the generalized conclusion may be reached that extensive-reading methods are more effective in achieving the aims of instruction in literature than are intensive-study methods. The term "extensive reading" as here used implies the natural contacts with literature that are maintained by intelligent adults. The object of extensive reading of literature in the classroom is the development of appreciation. By way of contrast, the term "intensive study" implies an attempt to build encyclopedic knowledge as the basis of appreciation.

## MALADJUSTMENTS OF ADOLESCENTS

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The past decade has witnessed a remarkable growth in the attention devoted to the problem child. The increased attention to maladjusted children is manifested in the lay world by the activities of legislative bodies, institutes of juvenile research, and other social agencies; in the field of education, by comprehensive investigations by departments of education of universities, the establishment of child-study clinics by boards of education in large cities, and the growing recognition by teachers and principals of the presence of problem cases in all schools and of the need for diagnosis and adjustment. Superintendents and principals who are abreast of modern educational procedure provide in their schools for the systematic study of special cases and adjust classroom methods and materials to meet the needs. Nevertheless, the extreme problem child—the social delinquent—still furnishes a very grave challenge to the public school.<sup>1</sup>

This article presents the results of a study of a large group of extreme problem cases in a large city and its environs. The group investigated was the pupil body of the Juvenile Detention School of Chicago during four months of the year 1928. The pupils in this school are the delinquent children apprehended in Chicago and the surrounding territory and a comparatively small number of dependent children. The pupils live in the Juvenile Detention Home and attend the school until their cases are settled. The dependent children are placed in private homes or in institutions by the Juvenile Court. The delinquent children are committed to correctional institutions by the Juvenile Court, dismissed by the Court, or released by police or probation officers. The period of detention for the individual boy or girl varies from a few days to two months or more, the average being approximately two weeks.

<sup>1</sup> Dorothy Wallace, "Problem of the Quasi-Delinquent in the School," *Mental Hygiene*, VIII (January, 1924), 115-65.



The Juvenile Detention School itself is not a correctional institution. Its program provides for industrial and special activities and a limited amount of academic work. Classes are in session for five hours each school day—Monday to Friday, inclusive—during the fifty-two weeks of the year. The instructional staff consists of ten full-time teachers.

The data for the study here reported were secured from the record cards<sup>1</sup> of the pupils enrolled in the school during the months of February, May, August, and October, 1928. These months were selected with a view to securing data representative of the pupil body for the entire year. For the purposes of this study, the length of each month was limited to four weeks. The data consisted of the age and grade of each pupil, the charge against him, and the number of times he had been committed to the school.

The terminology used in connection with the charges requires explanation. The numerous types of offenses have been grouped under eight general headings. The term "assault" as here employed includes such charges as beating other children, attacking others with weapons, and homicide. "Larceny" covers the stealing of automobiles, pickpocketing, burglary, "holdups," and minor thefts. "Vagrancy" is applied to running away from home, being "picked up" by the police, or being captured after escape from an institution. "Incorrigibility" is employed in connection with acts in defiance of constituted authority, such as resistance to police, destruction of property, drinking, and carrying weapons. "Immorality" on the part of the boys includes such offenses as indecent exposure, attempted attacks on women and girls, and rape; on the part of the girls, living away from home with boys or men. "Low mentality" pertains to imbecility and feeble-mindedness. Truancy refers only to those cases of unexcused absence from class work which are too grave to be referred directly to the Juvenile Court by the home school. "Dependency" applies to children who have been deserted or left as orphans or who have lived in homes where conditions were deemed by authorities detrimental to the best interests of children.

The total number of children who entered the Juvenile Detention School during the months of February, May, August, and Octo-

<sup>1</sup> Supplementary data were secured from the records of the Juvenile Detention Home through the courtesy of Superintendent Harrison Dobbs.

ber, 1928, was 2,417, of whom 1,981 were boys and 436 were girls. October, the autumn month, exceeded the other months studied in the number of cases admitted to the school, with August, May, and February ranking next in order. The ranking is the same for both boys and girls.

The boys showed the greater seasonal variation in numbers, 390 entering the school in February as compared with 621 in October; the corresponding figures for the girls are 102 for February and 114 for October. No striking change was noted in the number of

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF 1,981 BOYS ADMITTED TO THE JUVENILE DETENTION SCHOOL DURING FEBRUARY, MAY, AUGUST, AND OCTOBER, 1928, ACCORDING TO THEIR GRADES AND THE CHARGES AGAINST THEM

CHARGE	GRADES											TOTAL	
	Kinder- garten	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X		XI
Assault.....				1	2	6	3	15	9	6	5		47
Larceny.....		10	22	44	119	137	192	202	188	90	24	4	1,032
Vagrancy.....	I	11	21	42	67	85	94	70	87	25	13	1	517
Incorrigibility.....		3	3	17	12	28	38	37	24	13	2	2	179
Immorality.....			1	1	3	1	4	5		6	4		25
Low mentality.....		6	5	7	2								20
Truancy.....		1	3	3	8	11	11	11	10	3			61
Dependency.....	16	9	10	18	7	15	8	9	3	5			100
Total.....	17	40	65	133	220	283	350	349	321	148	48	7	1,981

children admitted to the school in August, during which the public schools were not in session.

As shown in Table I, 1,020, or 51.5 per cent, of the boys were in Grades VI, VII, and VIII; 818, or 41.3 per cent, were in the junior high school grades, VII-IX; only 55, or 2.8 per cent, were in the senior high school grades, X-XII.

Table II shows the grade placement of the girls. Here, too, Grades VI-VIII exceed the other grades in the number of pupils admitted to the school. Of the entire group of girls, 223, or 51.1 per cent, were in the junior high school grades; 34, or 7.8 per cent, were in the senior high school grades.

The combined data in Tables I and II show that 1,041, or 43.1 per cent, of the boys and girls admitted to the Juvenile Detention

School during the four months were at the junior high school level. In Chicago most of the pupils in Grades VII-IX are in schools organized on the traditional 8-4 plan. The data emphasize the importance of an efficient reorganization of the work of Grades VII-IX with the needs of the adolescent in mind.

A study of the grade levels at which the various offenses were committed shows that the boys in Grades VII-IX were responsible for 480 of the 1,032 charges of larceny against the boys. The boys in these grades were also charged with 182 of the 517 offenses of vagrancy and 74 of the 179 offenses of incorrigibility. The chief

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF 436 GIRLS ADMITTED TO THE JUVENILE DETENTION SCHOOL DURING FEBRUARY, MAY, AUGUST, AND OCTOBER, 1928, ACCORDING TO THEIR GRADES AND THE CHARGES AGAINST THEM

CHARGE	GRADES												TOTAL	
	Kinder- garten	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI		XII
Assault.....							2			1				3
Larceny.....					4	5	1	4	3	1	1	1		20
Vagrancy.....		1	1	1	5	5	22	21	31	22	7	3	2	121
Incorrigibility.....				1	2	10	20	18	26	10	8	2	1	98
Immorality.....				2	2	1	11	18	16	10	6			66
Low mentality.....			1											1
Truancy.....							3	2	2					7
Dependency.....	7	7	11	10	13	19	12	18	13	7	1	2		120
Total.....	7	8	13	14	26	40	71	81	91	51	23	8	3	436

offenses of the 223 girls in Grades VII-IX were vagrancy (74 cases), incorrigibility (54 cases), and immorality (44 cases). Dependency, as is to be expected, occurred most frequently in the lower grades and reached higher levels in the case of the girls than in the case of the boys.

The percentages of boys and girls charged with each type of offense are shown in Table III. Larceny constituted the charge against more than one-half of the boys. Approximately one-fourth of the boys were charged with vagrancy and nearly one-tenth with incorrigibility. Vagrancy and incorrigibility were the chief charges against the girls. Immorality was recorded as the offense with much greater frequency in the case of the girls than in the case of the boys. The percentage of girls classified as dependent is much great-

er than the percentage of boys so classified. Vagrancy is the only offense for which the percentages of the boys and the girls are approximately equivalent.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE 1,981 BOYS AND 436 GIRLS ADMITTED TO THE JUVENILE DETENTION SCHOOL DURING FEBRUARY, MAY, AUGUST, AND OCTOBER, 1928, ACCORDING TO THE CHARGES AGAINST THEM

Charge	Boys	Girls
Assault.....	2.4	0.7
Larceny.....	52.1	4.6
Vagrancy.....	26.1	27.8
Incorrigibility.....	9.0	22.5
Immorality.....	1.3	15.1
Low mentality.....	1.0	0.2
Truancy.....	3.1	1.6
Dependency.....	5.0	27.5
Total.....	100.0	100.0

The most significant fact revealed by Table IV is the large number of children whose ages ranged from twelve to sixteen years.

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF 2,417 BOYS AND GIRLS ADMITTED TO THE JUVENILE DETENTION SCHOOL DURING FEBRUARY, MAY, AUGUST, AND OCTOBER, 1928, ACCORDING TO THEIR AGES AND THE CHARGES AGAINST THEM

CHARGE	AGES															TOTAL
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18		
Assault.....							2	1	8	12	7	19	1	...	50	
Larceny.....				2	5	18	25	54	98	158	195	253	231	13	1,052	
Vagrancy.....	2		3	4	7	34	40	66	85	118	138	115	24	2	638	
Incorrigibility.....		2	1	1	6	7	3	21	43	59	57	59	16	2	277	
Immorality.....						2		5	5	15	22	24	14	4	91	
Low mentality.....				1	2	1	3	3	3	4	1	2		1	21	
Truancy.....					1		2	5	5	14	25	16			68	
Dependency.....	19	10	6	18	15	20	23	13	22	27	20	19	8	...	220	
Total.....	21	12	13	31	47	93	130	212	339	452	515	467	77	8	2,417	

The number of children included in this age range is 1,985, or 82.1 per cent of the whole group. Since twelve to sixteen are the years which designate the junior high school age,<sup>1</sup> the finding of a large

<sup>1</sup> William A. Smith, *The Junior High School*, p. 141. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925.

percentage of the maladjusted children in this age range suggests the advisability of using the junior high school to solve the problems of maladjustment. The extent to which a complete system of junior high schools in Chicago would reduce the amount of maladjustment noted here cannot, of course, be predicted, but, in any event, it appears that the expressed major purpose of the junior high school—"to provide a suitable educational environment for chil-

TABLE V

AGE-GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF 2,417 BOYS AND GIRLS ADMITTED TO THE JUVENILE DETENTION SCHOOL DURING FEBRUARY, MAY, AUGUST, AND OCTOBER, 1928

AGE	GRADES													TOTAL
	Kinder- garten	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	
5.....	21													21
6.....	3	9												12
7.....		6	5	2										13
8.....		4	19	6	2									31
9.....		2	9	19	17									47
10.....		7	10	36	24	13	2	1						93
11.....		2	13	19	46	31	13	5	1					130
12.....		2	11	20	42	61	44	24	6	2				212
13.....		5	1	19	54	70	91	59	35	3	2			339
14.....		3	3	13	32	71	113	89	89	32	6	1		452
15.....		2	5	6	18	47	93	115	137	66	24	2		515
16.....		6	2	5	9	28	57	121	117	81	30	10	1	467
17.....				2	1	2	6	16	24	14	8	2	2	77
18.....					1		2		4			1		8
Total..	24	48	78	147	246	323	421	430	412	199	71	15	3	2,417

dren approximately twelve to sixteen years of age"<sup>1</sup>—should be given ample opportunity to function in the interests of the adolescent boys and girls of the city.

It should be noted that the number of children of junior high school age greatly exceeds the number of children classified in Grades VII-IX. Table V shows that the apparent discrepancy between the two groups is caused by the marked degree of retardation that prevailed in almost every grade. Seventy-three and six-tenths per cent of the children were retarded one or more years. Of marked significance is the relation suggested by the data in

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 203.

Table V between retardation and social maladjustment. The connection between retardation and elimination from school has for some time been regarded as definitely established.<sup>1</sup> Retardation to the extent revealed in Table V constitutes a serious social and economic waste, for which the schools must be held responsible. Adjustments should be attempted through enriched curriculums, individual instruction, and improved methods of guidance.

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF 1,120 BOYS AND 225 GIRLS ADMITTED TO THE JUVENILE DETENTION SCHOOL DURING A PERIOD OF TWO MONTHS ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF TIMES THEY HAD BEEN IN THE SCHOOL

NUMBER OF TIMES IN THE SCHOOL	NUMBER		PER CENT	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
One.....	269	118	24.0	52.4
Two.....	405	61	36.2	27.1
Three.....	205	21	18.3	9.3
Four.....	84	17	7.5	7.6
Five.....	64	6	5.7	2.7
Six.....	32	1	2.9	0.4
Seven.....	18	1	1.6	0.4
Eight.....	20	.....	1.8	.....
Nine.....	16	.....	1.4	.....
Ten.....	7	.....	0.6	.....
Total.....	1,120	225	100.0	99.9

A significant fact with regard to children in the Juvenile Detention School is the number of times individual children have been admitted. The number of times children had been in the school was tabulated from the records for two months. Table VI shows that some boys had been in the school as many as ten times. None of the girls, however, had been enrolled more than seven times, and only two, more than five times. Fewer boys were enrolled for the first time than for the second. Approximately one-fourth of the boys were enrolled for the first time, and somewhat more than one-third for the second time. More than one-half of the girls, however, were in the school for the first time and slightly more than one-fourth for the second time. Nevertheless, the fact remains that the

<sup>1</sup> William Claude Reavis, *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools*, p. 15. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926.

percentage of both boys and girls who had been in the school more than once is very high.

The data presented show a great amount of larceny, vagrancy, incorrigibility, and immorality on the part of boys and girls. What can the public school do to prevent this social and economic waste? First, it can correct excessive retardation and the consequent leaving of school by providing at all grade levels for the individual needs of children. It can, in addition, provide a comprehensive program of guidance, with special attention to the critical years of twelve to sixteen. Finally, it can enrich and vitalize classroom work in all grades so that harmful influences outside the school will make less appeal to children.



## PRACTICES IN GENERAL OFFICE ADMINISTRATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

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The practices followed in the administration of the secondary-school office determine in no small measure the efficiency of the principal. If the principal assumes a large share in the general office work, he will probably not have much time to devote to the important professional duties which belong exclusively to the head of the school. On the other hand, if general office duties are delegated largely to clerks and assistants, the principal's time is released for the performance of duties which are of greater importance to the school than are the routine tasks usually classified under general office work.

It is the purpose of this article to present data with regard to the office practices common in secondary schools and to show that the practices are followed in many schools without the active participation of the principal. It is assumed, of course, that the principal is responsible for all office duties and that such duties must be performed by him unless he plans an office organization, and outlines procedures, designed to secure efficient performance of these duties by others.

Data presented in earlier articles in this series show that 441 of the 522 representative secondary schools studied employ clerks<sup>2</sup> and that 427 have outer offices.<sup>3</sup> An outer office makes possible the

<sup>1</sup> This article is the ninth, and last, of a series of articles dealing with certain aspects of secondary-school administration. The first eight articles were published in the issues of the *School Review* for October, November, and December, 1928, and January, February, March, September, and October, 1929.

<sup>2</sup> W. C. Reavis and Robert Woellner, "The Time and the Personnel Available for Administrative Duties in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XXXVI (October, 1928), 589.

<sup>3</sup> Robert Woellner and W. C. Reavis, "Architectural Plans of Administrative Offices in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XXXVII (January, 1929), 38.

maintenance of an information bureau. Some schools that do not employ clerks maintain their outer offices as information bureaus by assigning teachers to office duty during their free periods; other schools place pupils from the commercial department in charge of the outer office. These practices probably account for the fact that in some instances in the case of the schools in Groups 1-5 (4-700) the number of clerks represented in Tables I and II is greater than the number of clerks reported in an earlier article in this series as employed in the schools in these groups.

The practice of organizing the outer office as a bureau of information is an important administrative procedure, since the maintenance of an information bureau frequently determines the attitude of pupils, teachers, parents, and visitors toward the administration of the school. If the answer to an ordinary question of information can be secured only through personal interview with the principal of the school, the office is recognized as having no responsible head when the principal is absent. The clearing-house function prominent in offices in business and industry is in such cases performed only by the principal. The principal must either remain in the office constantly or become a circulating office which is sought by those who desire administrative attention. If the outer office is organized as an information bureau, the office rather than the principal assumes the clearing-house function. Responsibility is delegated by the principal to his representative in the outer office, and questions are answered or referred to the proper persons in accordance with the knowledge, authority, and discretion of the individual in charge.

Table I shows that 395, or 75.7 per cent, of the 522 secondary schools, maintain outer offices as information bureaus. Fifty-nine, or 11.3 per cent, of the schools do not maintain outer offices as information bureaus; sixty-eight, or 13.0 per cent, of the schools did not reply to the question. The small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300) maintain outer offices as information bureaus in 47.3 per cent of the cases. The explanation of the fact that the percentage of schools in Group 2 (101-200) which maintain outer offices as information bureaus is markedly lower than the corresponding percentages for the schools in Group 1 (4-100) and Group 3 (201-300) may be that the schools in Group 2 are housed in older buildings than are the schools

in Groups 1 and 3 and, as a result, have inadequate office space, which prevents the use of an outer office as an information bureau. The middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) maintain outer offices as information bureaus in 73.1 per cent of the cases, and the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) in 92.3 per cent of the cases. The data indicate very clearly that the tendency to organize the outer office as an information bureau increases as the schools increase in size.

TABLE I

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS IN EACH ENROLMENT GROUP WHICH MAINTAIN OUTER OFFICES AS INFORMATION BUREAUS AND NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH STENOGRAPHERS ACT AS INFORMATION CLERKS

ENROLMENT GROUP	SCHOOLS WHICH MAINTAIN OUTER OFFICES AS INFORMATION BUREAUS		SCHOOLS IN WHICH STENOGRAPHERS ACT AS INFORMATION CLERKS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1 (4-100).....	4	44.4	3	33.3
2 (101-200).....	4	13.8	9	31.0
3 (201-300).....	36	65.5	36	65.5
4 (301-500).....	45	60.0	57	76.0
5 (501-700).....	58	80.6	59	81.9
6 (701-1,000).....	68	78.2	76	87.4
7 (1,001-1,500).....	87	91.6	91	95.8
8 (1,501-2,000).....	53	93.0	45	78.9
9 (2,001-6,500).....	40	93.0	32	74.4
Total.....	395	75.7	408	78.2

Table I shows that 408, or 78.2 per cent, of the schools have stenographers who act as information clerks. These stenographers are frequently required to assume certain minor administrative responsibilities as well as to perform the common types of clerical work.

Table II shows that in 364, or 69.7 per cent, of the 522 schools clerks are empowered to adjust minor matters of administration which do not necessarily require the attention of an administrative officer. When the clerk is unable to adjust a matter which comes to her attention, either of two procedures may be followed; she may call the principal or the assistant principal, or she may refer the person to the proper school officer. The matter thus passes out of the hands of the clerk and becomes a matter of sufficient importance to warrant the attention of the school officer in question.

In 371 of the 522 schools the principal or assistant principal is subject to call by the clerk for the adjustment of minor administrative matters which the clerk cannot satisfactorily adjust. Unless an administrative officer is available at the time, this procedure is open to question. For example, it is doubtful whether an adminis-

TABLE II  
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN EACH ENROLMENT GROUP IN WHICH CLERKS PERFORM  
EACH OF THIRTEEN MINOR ADMINISTRATIVE AND CLERICAL DUTIES

DUTY	ENROLMENT GROUPS*									TO-TAL	PER CENT
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
Adjusts minor administrative matters.....	3	5	29	48	49	70	80	41	39	364	69.7
Calls principal or assistant principal to adjust minor administrative matters....	2	9	32	55	52	66	77	47	31	371	71.1
Refers persons to proper school officers when unable to adjust minor administrative matters.....	2	6	23	22	24	28	30	22	14	171	32.8
Receives incoming telephone calls.....	3	12	39	51	68	78	92	54	42	439	84.1
Acts as switchboard operator for school.....	0	2	8	21	24	37	57	32	21	202	38.7
Obtains connections for outgoing telephone calls of administrative officers.....	1	6	14	30	33	47	47	43	37	258	49.4
Receives office callers.....	3	8	31	45	60	78	93	52	39	409	78.4
Makes appointments for administrative officers.....	2	4	18	28	46	55	71	39	27	290	55.6
Keeps records of school.....	2	10	30	51	61	67	71	31	17	340	65.1
Keeps office files.....	3	6	24	43	56	67	71	35	25	339	63.2
Does stenographic work.....	3	14	35	58	65	73	82	40	27	397	76.1
Performs duties of registrar..	1	5	18	29	37	44	36	11	4	185	35.4
Keeps attendance records...	2	7	20	31	34	40	30	12	3	179	34.3

\* Group 1 (4-100), 9 schools; Group 2 (101-200), 29 schools; Group 3 (201-300), 55 schools; Group 4 (301-500), 75 schools; Group 5 (501-700), 72 schools; Group 6 (701-1,000), 87 schools; Group 7 (1,001-1,500), 95 schools; Group 8 (1,501-2,000), 57 schools; Group 9 (2,001-5,000), 43 schools.

trative officer who is engaged in conference or important work should be subject to call except for matters of major importance. Only 38, or 7.3 per cent, of the schools indicated positively that clerks are not permitted to call administrative officers to deal with minor matters which they are unable to adjust. In 171 schools the clerk is instructed to refer the person to the proper administrative officer when she is unable to adjust a minor matter of administration. The practice of calling the principal makes it necessary for the principal

to be near the outer office; the practice of referring the person to the principal places the responsibility on the caller, who must seek the principal when he is available. If the former practice is generally observed, the clerk is likely to be little more than an assistant to the chief information clerk of the school, namely, the chief administrative officer, or principal.

Table II shows that the information clerk receives incoming telephone calls in 439, or 84.1 per cent, of the 522 schools. Only 42, or 8.0 per cent, of the schools indicated definitely that incoming telephone calls are not received by the information clerk; 41, or 7.9 per cent, of the schools did not indicate their practices. In 202, or 38.7 per cent, of the schools, the information clerk acts as switchboard operator for the school. The fact that the information clerk is not required to perform the duty in 204, or 39.1 per cent, of the schools, and the fact that 116, or 22.2 per cent, of the schools did not indicate their practices probably mean that the majority of the schools do not have switchboards rather than that the information clerks are not expected to perform the duty. Analysis of the data presented in Table II confirms this generalization. The nine schools in Group 1 (4-100) do not require the information clerk in a single instance to act as switchboard operator, although three schools require the information clerk to receive incoming telephone calls. Only two of the twenty-nine schools in Group 2 (101-200) require the information clerk to act as switchboard operator despite the fact that twelve schools require her to receive incoming telephone calls. The percentages of schools in the other seven groups which require the information clerk to act as switchboard operator range from 14.5 for Group 3 (201-300) to 60.0 for Group 7 (1,001-1,500). The percentage for the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300) is only 10.8; for the middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), 35.0; and for the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500), 56.4. Switchboards for telephone systems in secondary schools are comparatively recent developments. It is hardly to be expected, however, that many schools with fewer than five hundred pupils have switchboards. The assignment of the information clerk to switchboard duty is sufficiently frequent in the middle-sized and large schools, however, to warrant the conclusion that switchboard duty consti-

tutes an important type of service required of information clerks in secondary schools. In 49.4 per cent of the schools the information clerk is asked to obtain the connections for the outgoing telephone calls of the administrative officers. It is obvious that the service involved in receiving incoming telephone calls is more important to the administrative officer than is the service involved in obtaining connections for outgoing calls. The data presented in Table II with regard to the duty under consideration should occasion little surprise. In schools which have switchboards the information clerk probably obtains the connections for the outgoing telephone calls of the administrative officers, but in schools without switchboards the clerk is probably not frequently asked to perform this duty.

Persons wishing to see the administrative officers of a secondary school usually go directly to the administrative office. If there is an information clerk in charge, questions may be answered, the officers desired may be called, or appointments may be made. Administrative officers do not feel constrained to mark time in the office in anticipation of telephone calls or visitors. They can attend to duties in other parts of the school knowing that the office duties will be performed by the clerk in charge. Table II shows that in 409, or 78.4 per cent, of the schools the information clerk receives office callers. In only 81, or 15.5 per cent, of the schools is the practice not observed; 32, or 6.1 per cent, of the schools did not answer the question.

Two hundred and ninety, or 55.6 per cent, of the 522 schools require the information clerk to make appointments for the administrative officers. One hundred and seventy-two, or 33.0 per cent, of the schools do not require the information clerk to make such appointments; sixty, or 11.5 per cent, of the schools did not indicate their practices. The data show that a considerable number of administrative officers have not yet systematized their procedures in dealing with callers. While Table II shows that, in general, the practice of requiring information clerks to make appointments for administrative officers increases as the schools increase in size, the fact must not be overlooked that the practice of employing clerks also increases as the schools increase in size. It must not be inferred, therefore, that the principals of the small schools are unsystematic because the percentage which require appointments to be made by

the information clerk is low. Few of them have clerks to perform such services.

Three hundred and forty, or 65.1 per cent, of the schools require the information clerk to keep the records of the school. Recording is routine work, which can be done whenever the clerk has free time. Administrative officers and teachers are thus relieved of low-level, routine responsibilities. The low percentages in the case of the schools in Groups 8-9 (1,501-6,500) are probably due to the fact that the responsibility for recording is so great in the large schools that it must be delegated to special clerks. Table II, however, shows that recording is one of the regular duties of information clerks.

Filing is an important part of the work in administrative offices. Records, reports, and correspondence must be systematically filed; otherwise, administration quickly breaks down. Table II shows that the information clerk keeps the office files in 330, or 63.2 per cent, of the 522 schools. In 131, or 25.1 per cent, of the schools, the filing is not done by the information clerk; 61, or 11.7 per cent, of the schools, did not indicate their practices. The data resemble very closely those presented with regard to the practice of requiring the information clerk to keep the records of the school.

Table II shows that 397, or 76.1 per cent, of the 522 schools require the information clerk to do stenographic work for the administrative officers. Only seventy, or 13.4 per cent, of the schools do not require such work; fifty-five, or 10.5 per cent, of the schools failed to indicate their practices. In most schools the information clerk can perform minor administrative duties and, when not so engaged, can do stenographic work. This fact probably accounts for the large number of schools which use their information clerks as stenographers.

The duties of registrar are assigned to the information clerk in 185, or 35.4 per cent, of the schools, and the responsibility of keeping attendance records is so assigned in 179, or 34.3 per cent, of the schools. The practice of assigning these duties to the information clerk is most common in the case of the middle-sized schools. This fact can be explained by the small percentage of the small schools that have information clerks and by the necessity in the case of the large schools of assigning the duties to special clerks.

The routine procedures followed in administrative offices in sec-



ondary schools are shown in Table III. The data indicate that office procedures are far from standardized. However, certain trends are apparent, which show that the problems of efficient office procedure are recognized although probably not satisfactorily solved in the majority of schools.

One hundred and thirty-seven, or 26.2 per cent, of the schools permit visitors to enter the private offices of the administrative officers without first communicating with the information clerk. In 316, or 60.5 per cent, of the schools, the visitor must first com-

TABLE III  
ROUTINE PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN OFFICE ADMINISTRATION  
IN 522 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Procedure	Number of Schools Which Follow Proce- dure	Number of Schools Which Do Not Follow Procedure	Number of Schools Which Did Not Indi- cate Procedure
Information clerk admits visitors to private offices of administrative officers. . . .	316	137	69
Information clerk admits pupils to private offices of administrative officers. . . . .	311	151	60
Information clerk admits teachers to private offices of administrative officers. . . .	191	252	79
Clerk summoned by bell when needed by an administrative officer. . . . .	221	250	51
Duty assigned to clerk best prepared to perform it. . . . .	301	19	202
Duty assigned in accordance with a functional classification of duties. . . . .	288	20	214
Duty assigned to any clerk available at time it must be performed. . . . .	132	75	315

municate with the information clerk, who admits the visitor to the office of the administrative officer. Sixty-nine, or 13.2 per cent, of the schools did not indicate their practices. The majority of the schools have attempted to regulate and control through the information clerk the calls made on the principal. If the information clerk can satisfy the caller promptly, the time of both administrative officer and caller is economized, and the executive officer is thereby enabled to gain time for matters of major importance to the school.

The small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300) permit visitors free access to the principal in 51.6 per cent of the cases. The middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) permit such access in only 24.4

per cent of the cases, and the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) in 16.4 per cent of the cases. As schools increase in size administrative officers find it increasingly unwise to permit callers to enter their private offices at will. In small schools the number of callers is limited. This fact tends to make unrestricted calling less serious in small schools than in large schools.

Some administrative officers evidently make exceptions to the rule for visitors in the case of pupils and teachers. In five schools in which visitors are required to communicate with the information clerk before they enter the private offices of the administrative officers, pupils are encouraged to enter directly without permission from the clerk. Teachers are encouraged to go directly to the offices of the administrative officers without communicating with the information clerk in 120 schools which require both general visitors and pupils to be received first by the information clerk.

It is difficult to understand why either pupils or teachers should not ascertain from the information clerk before they enter the private office of an administrative officer whether the officer is engaged or is available for conference. Some principals maintain office hours for both pupils and teachers as a means of encouraging both to avail themselves of the counsel of the head of the school in the solution of their problems. In 316, or 60.5 per cent, of the 522 schools pupils are expected to communicate with the information clerk before they enter the private office of an administrative officer, and in 191, or 36.6 per cent, of the schools, the teachers are expected to observe the same practice. As one would naturally expect, the large schools follow the practice more closely than do the small schools.

Table III shows that the administrative officers in 221, or 42.3 per cent, of the 522 schools summon clerks by bell when clerical service is needed. In 250, or 47.9 per cent, of the schools, clerks are not summoned by bell. Fifty-one, or 9.8 per cent, of the schools failed to indicate their practices. Sixty-five and six-tenths per cent of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500), 34.2 per cent of the middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), and 14.0 per cent of the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300) have their offices so organized that clerks can be summoned by bell. The necessity for systematic and efficient procedures in summoning clerks is probably greater in the case of large schools than in the case of small schools.

However, the expense involved in providing a system of bells is so slight that any school which employs clerks might easily adopt efficient methods of summoning them when they are needed by administrative officers. Which procedure is the more efficient for an administrative officer to adopt—to go in search of a clerk when clerical service is needed or to push a button which rings a clerk's bell? Only those administrative officers who are uncritical of their own activities will long follow the first procedure.

Three procedures are followed by administrative officers in assigning office duties to clerks: (1) to assign the duty in question to the clerk best prepared to perform it, (2) to assign the duty to a particular clerk in accordance with a functional classification of duties, and (3) to assign the duty to the clerk available at the time the duty must be performed. Three hundred and one, or 57.7 per cent, of the 522 schools follow the first procedure; 288, or 55.2 per cent, the second; and 132, or 25.3 per cent, the third.

#### SUMMARY

The data presented in this article reveal a variety of general administrative practices in the offices of secondary schools. In some schools the principal evidently assumes large responsibility for the details of office work. In other schools the information clerk is made responsible for minor administrative duties as well as for general office duties, such as receiving incoming telephone calls; acting as switchboard operator for the school; obtaining the connections for the outgoing telephone calls of the administrative officers; receiving and giving directions to pupils, teachers, and visitors who desire to see the administrative officers; doing stenographic work; keeping the records of the school and the office files; serving as registrar; and keeping the attendance records of the school.

In the administrative offices of many secondary schools routine procedures are followed which are designed to systematize office administration and to conserve the time of the administrative officers and thus increase their efficiency. Although many schools do not follow routine procedures in office administration and a considerable number did not indicate their practices, the data presented show a favorable trend toward efficient office administration.

## THE RELATION BETWEEN THE CIVIC INFORMATION POSSESSED BY NINTH-GRADE PUPILS AND THEIR PRACTICES IN CITIZENSHIP

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Citizenship training is universally recognized as the chief aim of education. The junior high school movement has brought to light many new problems concerning curricular activities, and, as a result, there has been much recent discussion of problems relative to programs of citizenship training. In order to carry out such a program in the junior high school, one must know the kind and amount of civic knowledge which the pupils possess and the extent to which the possession of a greater amount of such knowledge would aid them in performing their civic duties.

During February and March, 1928, an effort was made to solve the problems referred to by making a study of 120 ninth-grade pupils in the junior high school at South Haven, Michigan. The character and the extent of the civic deficiencies of the pupils were measured by direct observation. All the pupils were observed in twenty class periods, twelve study periods, and eight auditorium periods of forty-five minutes each. They were also observed twenty times while passing to classes, and their lockers and desks were twice inspected to determine the condition in which they were kept.

The data presented in Table I were verified by determining the correlation between the number of civic deficiencies of the pupils and the average monthly citizenship marks given to the pupils by their teachers. A correlation of .68 was found. The method of observation was also verified by having three teachers check the same group of pupils in the classroom and study room for a period of five days and then finding the correlation between the number of civic deficiencies observed by the different teachers. The lowest coefficient was .72.

The civic deficiencies to be observed were chosen after consul-

tation with members of the faculty and with the ninth-grade pupils themselves. Several deficiencies of minor importance were discarded later because trial observations proved that they are almost impos-

TABLE I  
CIVIC DEFICIENCIES OF 120 PUPILS OBSERVED DURING THE MONTHS OF  
FEBRUARY AND MARCH, 1928, RANKED ACCORDING TO  
FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE

Civic Deficiency	February	March	Total	Rank
Whispering or talking aloud in classroom, etc. ....	439	522	961	1
Failure to put forth a sufficient amount of effort in preparing school work. ....	213	161	374	2
Causing disturbances. ....	71	96	167	3
Failure to bring proper equipment to school or class. ....	49	94	143	4
Copying or receiving unfair aid. ....	69	72	141	5
Failure to take part in class or school activities. ....	52	72	124	6
Failure to study during school hours. ....	56	48	104	7
Disobeying traffic rules. ....	34	14	48	8
Failure to keep desks and lockers clean, etc. ....	26	20	46	9
Chewing gum during school hours. ....	4	36	40	10
Failure to keep books, written work, and other personal articles clean and in good order. ....	11	24	35	11
Failure to make up work promptly. ....	15	11	26	12
Failure to arrive at school or at class on time. ....	13	12	25	13
Failure to keep clothes clean. ....	16	3	19	14
Failure to help in keeping others from doing wrong. ....	9	8	17	15
Failure to keep body clean. ....	8	9	17	16
Failure to remember assignments. ....	5	7	12	17
Destroying school property and lack of thrift. ....	6	5	11	18
Failure to return borrowed articles. ....	7	3	10	19
Failure to keep appointments. ....	7	3	10	20
Wasting materials. ....	2	6	8	21
Failure to take proper seat, etc. ....	0	5	5	22
Failure to begin assigned tasks promptly. ....	4	0	4	23
Truancy from school. ....	2	2	4	24
Destroying own property. ....	1	3	4	25
Using drinking fountains in an uncleanly manner. ....	3	0	3	26
Walking on school lawns. ....	0	2	2	27
Stealing articles. ....	0	0	0	28
Total. ....	1,122	1,238	2,360	.....

sible to observe under a definite organized plan. Each civic deficiency was then defined so that the checking would be uniform throughout the study.

Table I shows that "whispering or talking aloud in the classroom, study room, or auditorium without permission" ranks first in frequency and was observed on 961 occasions. While this deficiency has by far the greatest frequency of occurrence, it is some-

what different from many of the other deficiencies observed and would probably be expected to occur more frequently. "Failure to put forth a sufficient amount of effort in preparing school work" ranks second, occurring a total of 374 times, or almost two-thirds less than the deficiency which ranks first. "Causing disturbances" ranks third, with a frequency of 167. The seven deficiencies which have the highest frequencies have a combined frequency of 2,014, or 85 per cent of the total. The remaining twenty deficiencies have a combined frequency of only 346, or 15 per cent of the total. Thus, there are seven civic deficiencies which are outstanding in frequency and a large number of other deficiencies which were ob-

TABLE II  
TYPES OF CIVIC DEFICIENCIES OBSERVED RANKED ACCORD-  
ING TO FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE

Type of Civic Deficiency	Number	Per Cent	Rank
Disorder in school.....	1,176	49.8	1
Lack of industry.....	508	21.5	2
Failure to carry out responsibilities....	200	8.5	3
Lack of co-operation with the faculty and others.....	192	8.1	4
Dishonesty.....	141	6.0	5
Lack of neatness and cleanliness.....	120	5.1	6
Destruction of property or lack of thrift	23	1.0	7

served only occasionally. Most of the outstanding deficiencies relate to disorder in school and the industry of the pupil.

Table II shows that 49.8 per cent of the civic deficiencies observed relate to the causing of disorder in school. The deficiencies which pertain to the industry of the pupil rank second, with a percentage of 21.5, or somewhat less than one-half of the percentage for the first item. The deficiencies which pertain to failure to carry out responsibilities, lack of co-operation with others, dishonesty, lack of neatness and cleanliness, and destruction of property or lack of thrift occurred considerably less frequently than did the two outstanding types of deficiencies although they appeared frequently enough to be of considerable importance for study.

The pupils were divided into four homogeneous groups. Group A was made up of the best pupils; Group B, of the second best; Group C, of the third best; and Group D, of the fourth best, or

poorest, pupils. These groups were determined by means of composite scores on tests of general intelligence, arithmetic, and silent reading and the marks received during the preceding semester for class work. Table III shows that Group A had an average of 10.0

TABLE III  
NUMBER OF PUPILS IN EACH OF FOUR HOMOGENEOUS  
GROUPS AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF CIVIC  
DEFICIENCIES PER PUPIL

Group	Number of Pupils in Group	Total Number of Deficiencies	Average Number of Deficiencies per Pupil
A.....	30	301	10.0
B.....	31	515	16.6
C.....	32	720	22.5
D.....	27	824	30.5

civic deficiencies per pupil; Group B, an average of 16.6; Group C, an average of 22.5; and Group D, an average of 30.5. Thus, the highest group had the smallest average number of civic deficiencies and the lowest group had the largest average number.

TABLE IV  
AVERAGE NUMBER OF EACH TYPE OF CIVIC DEFICIENCY PER  
PUPIL IN EACH HOMOGENEOUS GROUP

Type of Civic Deficiency	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
Disorder in school.....	5.2	8.1	11.7	15.2
Lack of industry.....	1.3	3.7	5.3	6.7
Lack of neatness and cleanliness.....	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.7
Lack of co-operation with the faculty and others.....	0.9	1.4	1.8	2.4
Failure to carry out responsibilities....	0.9	1.4	1.4	2.9
Destruction of property or lack of thrift.....	0.2	0.06	0.2	0.4
Dishonesty.....	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.04

Table IV shows the average number of each type of civic deficiency per pupil for each of the four groups. It is worthy of note that, although Group A had the smallest average number of civic deficiencies, there was no one of the types that was not observed to some extent. Group A exhibited the civic deficiencies in practically the same proportionate amounts as did the other groups. Group A



had the lowest average number of civic deficiencies of the first four types; Group B, the second lowest; Group C, the third lowest; and Group D, the highest. In the case of the last three types of deficiencies, there were not enough deficiencies observed to determine their exact relation in the different classes. If the study had extended over a longer period of time and a greater amount of data had been gathered, the averages for the last three types of civic deficiencies would probably have conformed to the averages for the first four types of deficiencies. The results for the last type, "dishonesty," compare favorably with the findings of May and Harts-horne in their studies of deceit. Their experiments show that, "in

TABLE V  
AVERAGE SCORES MADE ON THE TEST IN CIVIC ATTITUDES  
AND THE TEST IN CIVIC INFORMATION BY EACH  
OF THE FOUR HOMOGENEOUS GROUPS

Group	Number of Pupils	Test in Civic Attitudes	Test in Civic Information
A. ....	30	14.8	11.5
B. ....	31	15.0	10.7
C. ....	32	14.5	10.3
D. ....	27	13.6	9.0

the situations under experiment, stupidity and deception went together. On the general average, the more stupid the pupils were, the more they stole, cheated, and lied; the more intelligent they were, the higher were their average scores for honesty."<sup>1</sup>

To measure the character and the extent of the civic knowledge possessed by the ninth-grade pupils, the Hill tests in civic attitudes and civic information were used. Neither test would be complete alone in a measurement of this kind, for each reveals a different type of information which the individual must have before he can be of the greatest use to society. Both tests have twenty exercises, each exercise having four statements from which the correct statement is to be chosen. The score for each test is the number of exercises answered correctly; therefore, the highest possible score is 20.

Table V shows the average scores made on the Hill tests. The

<sup>1</sup> Albert Edward Wiggam, "Science Measures Morals," *World's Work*, LVI (May, 1928), 90.

scores for the Test in Civic Attitudes are higher in all the groups than the scores for the Test in Civic Information. With the exception of the score for Group B on the Test in Civic Attitudes, the scores for the four groups rank in the order of the standing of the groups, showing that the brighter pupils possessed the greater amount of civic knowledge. There were a few exceptions to this rule, since some of the duller pupils made high scores on the tests and some of the brighter pupils made low scores; the data presented in the table, however, are average scores only. The correlations between the intelligence quotients and the scores made on the tests in civic attitudes and information are .28 and .26, respectively. Fowler found a positive correlation between the intelligence quotients and the scores made on the Test in Civic Attitudes in a study of sixty pupils in the Lake View High School, Chicago.<sup>1</sup> L. L. Everly, in using the Test in Civic Attitudes in the schools in St. Paul, found no reliable relation between intelligence quotients and the pupils' ability to make high scores on the test.<sup>2</sup>

Table VI shows the exercises in the Test in Civic Attitudes arranged in the order in which they were most frequently missed by the pupils and aids in analyzing the types of exercises which were least understood. Exercise 16 ranks first, having been missed by 78 of the 120 pupils. This exercise deals with the definition of a truthful and honest person. Exercise 7, which ranks second, was missed by sixty-nine pupils; it calls for knowledge regarding the best use of leisure time. Exercise 8 ranks third; it asks for a definition of the "best citizen."

Further examination of Table VI reveals the fact that, with the exception of Exercise 20, the ten exercises which rank first deal with concepts which require judgment and opinion in general situations. The ten exercises which rank last deal, for the most part, with concrete situations that call for definite action and are, therefore, more familiar to pupils than is the general type. The experiences which pupils encounter in everyday life form a basis for dealing with the

<sup>1</sup> O. F. Fowler, "The Civic Attitudes of High-School Sophomores," *School Review*, XXXVI (January, 1928), 36.

<sup>2</sup> *Report of the Third Annual Nation-wide Testing Survey: Testing Projects in Civics, Arithmetic, Letter Writing, 1926-1927*, p. 4. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co.

last ten exercises, while the knowledge used in dealing with the first ten exercises must be gained almost entirely through reading or regular classroom work.

TABLE VI  
EXERCISES IN THE TEST IN CIVIC ATTITUDES ARRANGED IN THE ORDER  
IN WHICH THEY WERE MOST FREQUENTLY MISSED

Exercise	Number of Times Missed	Rank
16. A truthful and honest person is one who:.....	78	1
7. The best way to employ leisure time is:.....	69	2
8. The best citizen is one who:.....	64	3
17. My responsibility to my fellow-students and neighbors is:.....	64	4
11. The way I can get the most out of school is:.....	48	5
12. The ideal pupil does his work well in order to:.....	43	6
14. In case he knows of a serious offense against the rules of the school or the laws of his country, the good citizen should:.....	41	7
20. Your parents give you an allowance of \$2.00 a week. The best use to make of this money is:.....	40	8
15. The highest type of courtesy is:.....	38	9
13. The chief value of an education is that it enables a person:.....	37	10
6. An able-bodied, shabbily dressed young man appears at your back door and asks for money. In this case:.....	35	11
1. In using public property, the good citizen should:.....	30	12
9. We should obey the laws in order to:.....	24	13
3. A child runs in front of your car when you are driving 35 miles an hour. Your brakes do not hold, and you injure the child. In this case:.....	16	14
5. While walking in the park you notice a boy lying in the street; he has apparently been seriously injured by an automobile. In this case:.....	16	15
10. An ideal home is one in which:.....	7	16
18. While walking in the park, you see some small children picking flowers which are in full bloom. In this case, you should:.....	7	17
2. You are playing ball with two friends. When you are "at bat," you knock the ball through a window. In this case:.....	5	18
4. While driving on the boulevard with a new car bearing no license number, you speed up to 50 miles an hour. You see a motorcycle policeman following you. In this case:.....	2	19
19. You are buying a tennis racket, the price of which is \$7.50. You hand the clerk a ten-dollar bill, and he gives you \$4.50 in change. In this case you should:.....	1	20

The results of the Test in Civic Attitudes as shown in Table VI compare favorably with the results obtained by Fowler.<sup>1</sup> Fowler found that Exercises 16, 17, 7, 14, and 8 were missed most frequently by the pupils in the order given; the study here reported shows that Exercises 16, 7, 8, 17, and 11 were missed by the greatest numbers

<sup>1</sup> O. F. Fowler, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

of pupils. Exercise 11 ranks fifth in this study, while in Fowler's study it ranked sixth. Fowler found that Exercises 4, 10, and 19 were not missed by any of the pupils; in this study these exercises were missed by only two pupils, seven pupils, and one pupil, respectively.

With the exception of Exercises 7 and 10, the eleven exercises in the Test in Civic Information which rank first in order of difficulty (Table VII) are economic and social in nature. The reason for their

TABLE VII  
EXERCISES IN THE TEST IN CIVIC INFORMATION ARRANGED IN THE ORDER  
IN WHICH THEY WERE MOST FREQUENTLY MISSED

Exercise	Number of Times Missed	Rank
16. A closed shop is:.....	106	1
5. Capital is:.....	98	2
9. Socialists believe that:.....	98	3
8. An excise tax is:.....	89	4
7. The national laws are made by the:.....	80	5
14. An injunction is:.....	75	6
13. A boycott is:.....	73	7
10. The president of the United States is elected by:.....	72	8
4. Wealth is:.....	67	9
2. A corporation is:.....	58	10
3. The Industrial Revolution was:.....	54	11
20. A citizen of the United States is:.....	54	12
18. The President's Cabinet is:.....	50	13
19. In the United States war is declared by:.....	42	14
6. City ordinances are made by:.....	33	15
17. A budget is:.....	24	16
12. A labor union is:.....	22	17
1. Labor is:.....	19	18
15. The highest official in a city government is:.....	3	19
11. A bank is:.....	2	20

difficulty is undoubtedly the fact that the pupils had not studied economics in school and the terms were therefore remote from their everyday lives. The first eleven exercises are followed in rank by three exercises which deal with national affairs. The last six exercises relate to local topics.

Table VIII shows that Group A had the largest total average score and the smallest average number of civic deficiencies; that Group B had the second largest average score and the second smallest average number of civic deficiencies; and so on. The data show that,

on the average, the brighter pupils had the greater amount of civic knowledge and the smaller number of civic deficiencies. In order to study this relation still farther, the correlation was found between the number of civic deficiencies and the total average scores on the tests. The correlation was found to be .41. This coefficient shows that there is a significant correlation between the civic practices of the pupils and their civic knowledge as measured by the tests. Apparently, the direct relation between the amount of civic knowledge which the pupils possessed and their civic shortcomings shows that the pupils used their civic knowledge in governing their actions

TABLE VIII

AVERAGE NUMBER OF CIVIC DEFICIENCIES PER PUPIL IN EACH OF THE FOUR  
HOMOGENEOUS GROUPS AND AVERAGE SCORES MADE ON THE TEST IN  
CIVIC ATTITUDES AND THE TEST IN CIVIC INFORMATION

GROUP	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CIVIC DEFICIENCIES PER PUPIL	AVERAGE SCORES		
		Test in Civic Attitudes	Test in Civic Information	Total
A.....	10.0	14.8	11.5	26.3
B.....	16.6	15.0	10.7	25.7
C.....	22.5	14.5	10.3	24.8
D.....	30.5	13.6	9.0	22.6

in and about school. The possession of a greater amount of civic knowledge not only guides the pupil in the reasoning which he uses in performing different acts but also molds his attitude toward social relationships in general.

## SUMMARY

1. Of all the civic deficiencies observed, 40.7 per cent pertain to whispering or talking aloud without the permission of the teacher in charge. The deficiency "failure to put forth a sufficient amount of effort in preparing school work" is second in frequency and accounts for 15.8 per cent of the total number of deficiencies; "causing disturbances" accounts for 7.1 per cent of the total number. These three deficiencies and "failure to bring proper equipment to school or class," "copying or receiving unfair aid," "failure to take part in class or school activities," and "failure to study during school hours"

make up 85 per cent of the total; twenty other deficiencies make up the remaining 15 per cent.

2. The civic deficiencies which constitute disorder in school account for 49.8 per cent, or about one-half, of the total number. The deficiencies which pertain to the industry of the pupils rank second in frequency and make up 21.5 per cent of the total number.

3. On the average, the brighter pupils had the smaller number of civic deficiencies and the greater amount of civic knowledge.

4. All the civic deficiencies observed were possessed to some extent by the better groups as well as by the poorer groups.

5. The correlations between the intelligence quotients and the scores made on the tests in civic attitudes and information were .28 and .26, respectively.

6. The results of the tests show that the pupils possessed the greatest amount of knowledge about topics which deal with local affairs or matters within the range of their everyday experiences. For example, all but three of the pupils tested were able to answer correctly the question as to who is the highest official in a city government. Similarly, they possessed the least knowledge about state or national affairs and technical or economic terms. Only 14 of the 120 pupils tested were able to give the correct answer to the question regarding a closed shop. The pupils used the best reasoning in dealing with the exercises which contain concrete situations calling for definite action and the poorest reasoning in dealing with the exercises calling for judgment and opinion that could not be based on any of their past experiences. To illustrate, all but one of the pupils tested knew exactly what to do if a clerk in a store returned two dollars too much in changing a ten-dollar bill, but seventy-eight of them could not define a "truthful and honest person."

7. The correlation between the total average scores on the tests and the number of civic deficiencies of the pupils is .41. This correlation indicates that the possession of a greater amount of civic knowledge has aided the pupils in their practices of citizenship in school.

It is believed that the observations were made under normal conditions and that the pupils are a representative group with respect to intelligence as well as social and economic standing.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*The education of the girl in high school and college.*—Four years after the publication of *The Education of the Modern Boy*, the work of the headmasters of six well-known American preparatory schools, the companion volume *The Education of the Modern Girl*<sup>1</sup> appears. With each of its eight chapters the contribution of an outstanding woman in private-school education, the book may be said to tap widely the springs of careful thinking and rich experience. Lest its purpose be misunderstood, it is well to explain that it is not a textbook in education; so far as classroom or administrative technique is concerned, there is nothing new in its pages. The evident aim of the authors has been to point out the significant guideposts in modern education and to answer some of the most engrossing questions with regard to the secondary-school and college training of girls.

The eight essays—"Home Influences," "Academic Influence," "The Spirit of the School and Religion," "Athletic Influence," "College or Not," "The Future Trend of the Private School," "The Influence of Summer Camps," and "Partners All"—may be said to group themselves about several significant questions. What forces are now contributing or may be enlisted to contribute to the education of girls? Shall college training be the accepted plan for every girl? What shall be the chief objectives in the secondary-school and college education of girls? What is the future outlook for girls' schools in America?

In answer to the first of these questions, namely, that with regard to the chief influences which contribute to the training of the modern girl, the first factor to be considered is the influence of the home. A girl will react normally and effectively to her school problems to the extent to which her home life has built up for her an acceptable set of personal habits and successful experience in group living. For this activity of family life there is a real set of skills and a technique for which there can be definite training.

In the consideration of the second influence, the purely academic, there is a careful weighing and evaluation of college-entrance requirements. In addition to the impressions of the classroom itself, the spirit of the school—its traditions and loyalties—constitutes a third distinct influence. In a chapter that is truly

<sup>1</sup> Mabelle Babcock Blake and Others, *The Education of the Modern Girl*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. xii+220. \$3.00.



inspiring, a plea is advanced for the building-up of customs and rituals that carry forward from year to year sentiments which moved the founders and which enrich the lives of all who partake. There is only a short step from true school spirit to religion, for there is little difference between the loyalties which school and life demand.

The consideration of the fourth factor in a girl's education, namely, athletics, raises a number of pertinent questions. To what extent should there be athletics in girls' schools? Should games be compulsory or voluntary? Should they be competitive; if so, should competition be limited to groups within the school or permitted to extend to other schools? The values of athletics are set forth clearly, and a suggested program of activities is outlined.

Finally, the summer camp, as an experiment in group life and a harking-back to a primitive existence which deals in realities instead of symbols, is counted among the forces which may be brought to bear on a girl's training.

The discussion of the question of whether or not college should be the accepted plan for every girl can be the work of none other than a woman who has made a careful study of cases of failure in college. In addition to an adequate treatment of the girl who has special talent along some artistic line and of the girl of limited intellectual ability—types which have generally been agreed upon as not college material—there is a clear recognition of two other types: the girl who is so socially immature that she should postpone college entrance and the girl who is entirely unfit temperamentally to live happily in a college community. In a positive vein, an interesting set of qualities or traits which fit a girl temperamentally for effective college work is presented.

Throughout the book, there is a careful searching for the true objectives of private-school education, a willingness to look into the future and to cast off whatever is becoming useless in the new alignment of social and cultural values. The objective which is stressed above all others and which runs through the thought of more than one of the authors is that of effective home-building. So clearly is the need portrayed for minds which are intelligent, and natures which are sportsmanlike, in home membership that the principle of scholastic preparation for home-building carries real conviction.

The private institution has had to steer its course between two schools of thought: that which has stressed the need for the training, to the exclusion of all else, of a girl's capacity to please socially and that which has recognized a girl as possessing the capacity for actively participating in citizenship and for following a career in business or the arts. These two theories are not felt to be exclusive or impossible of amalgamation.

The future of private schools for girls, like that of private schools for boys, will depend on the use of the twofold freedom of the private school: its control over the manners and conduct of its pupils and its opportunity to experiment with democratic ways of group life. While this freedom is the peculiar possession of the private institution and while the book under discussion has been written almost entirely from the point of view of the private school, there is little in the

book that will not be of genuine interest and value to parents and educators of girls in public schools.

DOROTHY J. BANKS

LYONS TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE  
LA GRANGE, ILLINOIS

*Vocational guidance.*—The growing acceptance of vocational guidance as a legitimate aspect of the work of the modern secondary school creates a general interest in its theories and practices. Much that is written and practiced under the guise of a vocational-guidance program is stimulated by enthusiasm rather than prompted by scientific investigation or critical observation. Unfortunately, vocational counseling has a background of misconceptions which are injected into one's thinking when the introduction of guidance into the modern school is undertaken.

On the one hand, a number of mistaken notions about the possibilities and methods of individual analysis are current. Vocational guidance started on a basis of phrenology and physiognomy and has advanced only far enough in many cases to accept conceptions of "character analysis" that are equally unscientific. On the other hand, vocational guidance suffers from the failure to observe carefully the structure of the workaday world. For example, emphasis is often placed on the need for guidance because of the fear of the "blind-alley job." In industrial organization, however, either there is no such thing as a "blind-alley job" or else all jobs can be so characterized. It is the individual who is blind when he fails to make use of the possibilities of one level of work and to advance to the next level. The ultimate vocation of an individual depends on the extent to which he follows a forward-looking program. The division of labor has brought about so many vocations that success in life—if success is thought of in terms of greater financial returns and greater opportunities to serve—suggests a step-by-step advancement from one type of job to another.

The introduction of vocational guidance into the school is therefore no simple undertaking. Its problems and better practices are clearly presented in a book<sup>1</sup> of recent publication. The vocational-guidance movement has come to include so many aspects of personnel work in school that to attempt to treat all of them in one book permits at best only an overview. No one aspect of the work can be presented in detail. For the general student of education, however, an overview is timely.

The book is divided into three parts. Part One justifies the introduction of a guidance program into the school system. Part Two presents a body of principles on the basis of which a program of vocational guidance can be constructed. Part Three presents a survey of present-day practices in vocational guidance. The author has evidently had experience in the practical administration of a vocational-guidance program. School administrators will find in the

<sup>1</sup> I. David Cohen, *Principles and Practices of Vocational Guidance*. New York: Century Co., 1929. Pp. xxiv+472. \$3.00.

book a number of practical suggestions in line with the better theories of vocational guidance.

ROBERT WOELLNER

*A handbook on the financing of extra-curriculum activities.*—Hints for raising, distributing, and accounting for school money have been incorporated into a handy well-edited book,<sup>1</sup> the first of a series of twelve books to compose an "Extra Curricular Library." This small book, entitled *Financing Extra Curricular Activities*, tells how to raise money by means of student-activity tickets, a book exchange, or a paper drive. Other suggestions are given for financing the newspaper, the annual, clubs, and debating. Many successful devices for raising money, selected from the replies to questionnaires sent to schools of different sizes, are reported.

The authors describe not only how money is raised but how finances are classified and how budgets are made. The larger part of the book, however, is devoted to an exposition of four schemes for accounting for money—(1) for schools with limited funds, (2) for schools having average or large numbers of activities, (3) for schools which handle funds through the commercial department, and (4) for schools with banks. Appendixes, which make up almost one-half of the book, give complete outlines of accounting systems for three selected schools.

The value of the book lies in its analysis of methods of raising and handling money and in its suggestive schemes of accounting. The book is an enlargement of a specific topic found in most textbooks on extra-curriculum activities. The authors do not present anything especially new. The size and the style of the handbook make it convenient for the busy reader; the bibliography at the end furnishes a list of reading material for those who wish to make further study of methods of obtaining and accounting for school money. The book is a valuable addition to the literature already in the field of extra-curriculum activities.

THOMAS M. DEAM

JOLIET TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE  
JOLIET, ILLINOIS

*A procedure in analyzing a teaching unit.*—Next in importance to the determination of units of instruction in a given course is the development of efficient methods of teaching and learning the units. Because of the widespread interest in the unitary organization of instructional materials among teachers, administrators, and those who are teaching courses in methods, the authors of *The Teaching Unit*<sup>2</sup> have rendered a real service to the teaching profession.

<sup>1</sup> Harold D. Meyer and Samuel McKee Eddleman, *Financing Extra Curricular Activities*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1929. Pp. xii+132. \$1.00.

<sup>2</sup> Douglas Waples and Charles A. Stone, *The Teaching Unit: A Type Study*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. x+206. \$2.00.

The study is the outcome of actual classroom experience in mathematics. During the teaching of positive and negative numbers the instructional materials were subjected to a detailed analysis. This analysis yielded a list of carefully collected and classified learning difficulties encountered by the pupils and an effective teaching technique, which aims to minimize or eliminate such difficulties.

The authors have formulated a procedure which anyone interested in research may apply in determining effective methods of teaching other units, not only in mathematics but in other subjects.

The book contains a mass of valuable data relating to the aims and purposes of the unit of teaching analyzed and the selection and organization of materials. These data should be of interest to every teacher of mathematics.

E. R. BRESLICH

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*A textbook on general agriculture.*—*Our Farm World*<sup>1</sup> is a book on general agriculture for rural schools, the seventh and eighth grades in elementary schools, junior high schools, and the first year of four-year high schools. It was prepared in the hope of meeting the demand for a thorough and comprehensive system of instruction in practical agriculture suited to the industrial life of a nation in which agriculture is basic.

The more or less distinctive features of the book are (1) the adaptability of the material to schools giving instruction in general agriculture in the area in this country located approximately north of 37 degrees north latitude, the southern boundary of Illinois, and east of the Rocky Mountains; (2) the organization of the subject matter on the problem basis; (3) the constant reference throughout the book to the best methods of presentation for obtaining solutions to problems; and (4) the inclusion of much material for its broadening value rather than for its strictly utilitarian value.

Two other features are also noted: the citation of references at the end of each chapter for use in the further investigation of problems and a close consolidation of the exercises with the discussions in the book.

The phases of agriculture treated in the book are those which are appropriate to the geographical region for which the book is adapted. The effort has been made, however, to develop those principles which are important in such agricultural enterprises as dairying; beef and pork production; and the raising of grains, tubers, etc., in other regions. The book can be used to great advantage in field work for it seems to be very practical in every sense.

O. D. FRANK

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*How to study*—Within recent years the enrolment in the American secondary school has increased very rapidly. It now includes pupils of every type. There are some pupils who are interested in every kind of occupational activity and some who are interested in none. These pupils come from every type of

<sup>1</sup> Fred T. Ullrich, *Our Farm World: A Source Book in General Agriculture*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1929. Pp. xii+604. \$4.00.

home. Some have had at their disposal the best of books and periodicals; others have had none. Some have had home training in the manners and conduct that are common in the best of society; others have missed such home training. Even the so-called "better" homes have been of little value in pointing the way of the pupil in effective methods of study. Since personality factors are of great importance in determining one's ultimate success, the secondary school of today which offers to its pupils only academic training in literature, language, mathematics, science, history, and some shopwork falls far short of its opportunities.

Only recently, however, have school men recognized that training in the technique of study and in the development of personality could be given systematically and effectively. When such work has been attempted, the available materials to be presented have been limited and have been in a more or less unorganized form. After several years of pioneer work in his own school, the principal of a large secondary school in Illinois has presented the results of his experience in a remarkably clear and useful book.<sup>1</sup>

The author argues that "young people need to be taught how to study, just as they are taught how to play football" (p. xiii). He devotes seven chapters to the following topics: "The Importance of Right Attitude," "Dispatching School Work on Schedule Time," "Making the Best Use of the Memory," "Acquiring the Habit of Concentrating Attention," "Creating the Right Atmosphere for Study," "Conserving Energy for Study," and "The Power of Creative Thinking."

Cheer, self-confidence, good will, love, and the fighting spirit are feelings that build morale that strengthens the power to study, and the author writes of these in such a manner that the most discouraged and downcast adolescent boy or girl will understand, will be inspired, and will take on new courage. The chapter on memory is summed up as follows:

In order to remember effectively, one must (1) keep in good health, (2) learn with wide-awake energy, (3) practice recall before, during, and after study, (4) learn by whole units of thought and not by words, (5) outline to establish all connections and relations within the subject matter, and (6) repeat or review at increasing intervals. Bear in mind that what is best learned is best remembered and that all learning consists of establishing connections [p. 61].

Similarly, throughout each chapter, definite suggestions in concise form are given the pupil that will aid him in developing his technique of study in a truly scientific manner. The suggestions are not for the slow learner alone; even greater benefits will accrue to the more capable pupil.

Personality is defined briefly as "the sum of all the impressions a person makes on others" (p. 156). Character is listed as the most important element in personality. In order to develop character that will stand the test, one must know one's self and the source of all conduct, both good and bad. The instincts are this source. Instinctive action on the animal level is illustrated by a story

<sup>1</sup> Richard L. Sandwick, *Study and Personality: A Textbook in Educational Guidance*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xxii+228. \$1.12.

of a dog. How to inhibit or control instinctive impulses and how to develop character traits through habit formation are pointed out.

A brief appendix lists a large number of rules of conduct that are to be used in the development of personality.

Although the book is not technical in any manner, it is based on scientific principles. Footnote references to experimenters and writers of known standing are numerous. The book's chief value lies not in the fact that it suggests anything new but in the fact that it has been written primarily for the secondary-school pupil in a manner that is not only understandable but also interesting. It will find a welcome reception in the hands of the secondary-school pupil.

ERIC OSCAR MAY

TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, ROBINSON, ILLINOIS

*The first course in Spanish.*—Those who are seeking simple material planned for the reading, understanding, speaking, and writing of Spanish with "strong stress on the reading objective" will welcome a recent textbook.<sup>1</sup> The book is well graded and rich in content; it challenges attention by its inviting appearance and clever illustrations. It contains indispensable fundamental material based on those types of technique illustrative of the trend toward "socialization of content." The authors state that the aim is twofold, cultural as well as practical, in that the fundamentals of language are presented in a way designed to arouse both the interest and the enthusiasm of the pupils and to provide them with a cultural background that should continue beyond the mere acquisition of the linguistic mechanics. The material is based on the everyday experiences of the American boy and girl. It is the result of painstaking selection and represents the outgrowth of careful classroom teaching and testing. It will therefore be found well adapted to meet the requirements of existing teaching situations.

The first twenty-six lessons are preparatory and represent a pioneer step. They are exploratory in nature and designed for intensive oral practice. There are forty reading units, which comprise blocks of material dealing with classroom activities, family and city life, etc. The remaining lessons group together much cultural information about Spain and Spanish America in an interesting and informal manner, which has little savor of the traditional textbook. The suggested collateral readings for weekly discussions will not only enrich the cultural content of the course but aid the pupils to secure a more intelligent understanding of all Spanish-speaking peoples.

The preparatory lessons, the reviews, and the sections devoted to cultural information also represent a departure in textbook construction in that they form the basis for silent reading designed to stimulate the pupil to read for comprehension.

Grammatical content is strictly reduced to minimum essentials with one major and one minor principle in each lesson. There is logical articulation of the

<sup>1</sup> John M. Pittaro and Alexander Green, *Beginners' Spanish*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+492. \$1.56.



principles as the work progresses, with the advantages consequent to close-knit articulation. Every tenth lesson is followed by a graphic tabulation of topics presented in the preceding unit. This device provides for frequent review and makes the traditional verb appendix unnecessary.

Another pioneer step is the treatment of pronunciation, which is not neglected after the preliminary discussion but is carefully and systematically developed throughout the first thirty-nine lessons.

The authors have provided a variety of exercises adapted to three levels of pupil maturity—slow, average, and rapid groups. The exercises for the rapid groups are starred. These exercises may also furnish motivation for greater attainment on the part of all, or they may be used for remedial work for the retarded groups.

The vocabulary is comparatively small but carefully chosen. The difficulty in following standard word lists is due to the lack of agreement regarding the essential vocabulary. The textbook is especially usable since all possible effort has been made to select words and idiomatic phrases in keeping with the pupils' mental age. Passive, or recognition, words are placed in the general vocabulary.

In view of the important place occupied by Spanish art in the world's cultural history, the reproductions of the noted Sorolla murals will not only inculcate some notions of Spanish art but have educational value in their interpretation of Spanish life. The numerous line drawings with their variety of devices and original humor cannot fail to appeal to high-school pupils.

The reviewer recommends the textbook to teachers of Spanish. Nothing is omitted that might possibly add to its teachableness. The stress on reading material, discriminating choice of essential material, careful planning, cumulative repetition, motivation, and orientation signify to the forward-looking teacher a definite contribution.

MARY W. DILLINGHAM

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*Basket-ball for women.*—The author of *The Theory and Technique of Women's Basket Ball*<sup>1</sup> briefly presents at the beginning of the book the educational background of basket-ball, which will help to stabilize the game and explain from a psychological point of view the reason for teaching it in the senior high school. The treatment is strengthened by a bibliography on child psychology. The book clearly and logically develops educational ideas which can be applied to basket-ball.

The practical material deals with preliminary activities (tag-ball, pass-ball, relays, etc.), which give the co-ordination necessary to play basket-ball, and technique. The section dealing with technique describes in detail and illustrates the various throws for baskets, the pass, dodge, pivot, bounce, and juggle. Team-building and tactics are given important places in the book; the material on these subjects will be of assistance to any coach in developing teams. The

<sup>1</sup> Marjorie E. Fish, *The Theory and Technique of Women's Basket Ball*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+138. \$1.68.



author has summarized the main points at the end of each chapter and has further explained and charted plays in an appendix.

The book is valuable as a practical guide and as a theoretical presentation of the subject. It is complete in that basket-ball is thoroughly discussed from all sides, namely, the educational, the theoretical, and the practical.

ALMA J. WYLIE

*Stories of great artists.*—The lives of some of the great artists have furnished rich bibliographical material, from which Anna Curtis Chandler has selected a number of outstanding incidents, weaving them into fascinating stories which make these artists seem convincingly real. In her *Story-Lives of Master Artists*<sup>1</sup> the reader is introduced to Giotto, the shepherd boy who soon surpassed his master, becoming the first painter to give a feeling of reality to his pictures; to Filippo Lippi, the happy boy who loved life so much that, although he became a monk, he could not entirely renounce the world; to Luca della Robbia, the sculptor, who gave to Florence the charming Singing Gallery; to Leonardo da Vinci, who does not seem far removed from our own times since he spent many years trying to invent a flying machine; to Michelangelo, painter as well as sculptor, whose "picture book" may still be seen on the Vatican ceiling; to Frans Hals, the jolly Dutchman; to Rembrandt, the master of light and shade; to Anthony Van Dyck, the aristocratic court painter to King Charles the First of England; to Velásquez, the great Spaniard and close friend of the king who never smiled; to Gainsborough and Reynolds, noted English painters of children; to Millet, the painter of French peasants; to Rosa Bonheur, who painted animals; and to three Americans—Gilbert Stuart, whose portraits of George Washington are known to all school children; Edwin Abbey, mural painter of subjects dealing with the life of King Arthur's court; and Winslow Homer, known for his fine pictures of the ocean in all its moods.

In a paragraph or so before each of the stories, the author gives a short historical sketch of the life and times of the particular artist.

The author is uniquely qualified to write such a book as this since she is by profession the story-teller for children at the New York Metropolitan Museum of Art and knows from experience just how to interest young people. Although the stories were written primarily for the very young, older people will enjoy them.

The book is a valuable addition to the reading material designed particularly for children in the upper grades and junior high school. While amusing and entertaining, the book is informative, awakening an interest in the arts and stimulating a desire to know more of the great masterpieces of the world.

KATHRYN D. LEE

*Making and using school records.*—Every experienced teacher and school administrator recognizes the difficulties encountered in connection with the

<sup>1</sup> Anna Curtis Chandler, *Story-Lives of Master Artists*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+304. \$2.50.

general problem of record-keeping, and every student of comparative education recognizes the lack of uniformity which exists. A system of records tends either to become simplified to the point where its usefulness is impaired or to become so elaborate that its demands are irksome and its values largely obscured in its own complexity. Furthermore, the lack of clearly defined objectives and recognized basic principles has led to much confusion in terminology and in methods.

A recent book<sup>1</sup> has been written for the express purpose of giving to prospective teachers a conception of their relation to record-keeping as an important phase of school work. In addition, it proposes a uniform record system for the consideration of school administrators. It attempts to show why records are kept, what records should be kept, how they may be kept, and of what value they are to the pupil, the teacher, school officers, and others.

The first part of the book is devoted to school attendance and to the relation between the attendance department and the school. The remainder of the discussion is centered about the types of records which the school itself must utilize in carrying out its program.

The book contains a great deal of valuable material in the form of summaries of research studies. Of more importance are the studies which were made in the preparation of the book as a basis for the system of records proposed. The book makes a valuable contribution in defining the various problems involved, in calling attention to certain discrepancies in terminology, and in presenting a body of principles based on extensive research.

On the other hand, the book seems to lack coherent organization and to include materials which are in themselves valuable but quite remote from the theme of the book. For example, three excellent chapters are devoted to the present status of compulsory education and child labor in the United States, another to the causes of pupil failure, another to the assignment of school marks, and another to administrative provisions for individual differences. The materials in all these chapters are valuable and well presented, but they are not made to contribute in any vital manner to the development of the central thought of the book.

The chapters themselves are well organized and clearly presented. Liberal use is made of tables and diagrams, and a selected annotated bibliography follows each chapter. Topic and paragraph headings, chapter summaries, and lists of questions and problems for discussion at the end of each chapter add to the usefulness of the book as a textbook.

Whether or not the uniform record system which is proposed by the author is adopted in the schools in this country, the book should do much to establish scientific methods in record-making.

IVAN A. BOOKER

<sup>1</sup> Arch O. Heck, *Administration of Pupil Personnel: A Book on Pupil-Accounting Written from the Point of View of the Classroom Teacher*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. xx+480. \$2.40.

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,  
AND PRACTICE

- BEECHEL, EDITH E. *A Citizenship Program for Elementary Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 335. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. xii+170. \$1.75.
- BOWDEN, A. O. *Consumers Uses of Arithmetic: An Investigation To Determine the Actual Uses Made of Arithmetic in Adult Social Life, Exclusive of Vocational Uses*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 340. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. vi+70. \$1.50.
- CHUBB, PERCIVAL. *The Teaching of English in the Elementary and the Secondary School*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929 (revised). Pp. xxviii+594. \$2.75.
- CLEM, JANE E. *The Technique of Teaching Typewriting*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1929. Pp. vi+364. \$2.60.
- CLOUSER, LUCY WELER, and MILLIKAN, CHLOE ETHEL. *Kindergarten-Primary Activities Based on Community Life*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. viii+308. \$1.50.
- CONNOR, WILLIAM L., and JONES, LLOYD L. *A Scientific Study in Curriculum Making for Junior Courses in Business Education*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1929. Pp. viii+144. \$1.00.
- COX, PHILIP W. L. *The Junior High School and Its Curriculum*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. Pp. xxii+474.
- CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Public School Administration*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929 (revised). Pp. xxii+710. \$3.25.
- DEWEY, JOHN, and OTHERS. *Art and Education*. Merion, Pennsylvania: Barnes Foundation Press, 1929. Pp. x+350.
- FARLEY, BELMONT MERCER. *What To Tell the People about the Public Schools: A Study of the Content of the Public School Publicity Program*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 355. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. viii+136. \$1.75.
- GRAY, MASON DEWITT. *The Teaching of Latin*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. xviii+236. \$2.00.
- HART, JOSEPH KINMONT. *A Social Interpretation of Education*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929. Pp. xx+458. \$4.50.
- KELLEY, TRUMAN LEE. *Scientific Method: Its Function in Research and in Education*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1929. Pp. viii+196.
- KING, WILLIAM A. *The Elementary School Library*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. Pp. xiv+224.
- LOGIE, L. *Self-Expression in a Junior School*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1928. Pp. 86. \$3.00.
- MCKOWN, HARRY C. *School Clubs: Their Organization, Administration, Supervision, and Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. xviii+498.

- MALLER, JULIUS BERNARD. *Coöperation and Competition: An Experimental Study in Motivation*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 384. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. x+176. \$1.75.
- MEARNS, HUGHES. *Creative Power*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1929. Pp. viii+396. \$3.50.
- MOSSMAN, LOIS COFFEY. *Principles of Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School: An Interpretation of Modern School Procedures in the Light of Our Present Knowledge of the Laws of Learning*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+292. \$1.90.
- PALMER, ANTHONY RAY. *Progressive Practices in Directing Learning*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. xviii+300.
- Report of the Committee on Terminology* (Federated Council on Art Education). Baltimore: Leon L. Winslow (Carrollton and Lafayette Avenues), 1929. Pp. x+80. \$0.50.
- SCHWEICKHARD, DEAN M. *Industrial Arts in Education*. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1929. Pp. 368. \$3.00.
- SPEER, DOROTHY. *An Experimental Evaluation of Seven Composition Scales*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 14. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1929. Pp. x+86. \$1.50.
- TILSON, MARIE AGNES. *Problems of Preschool Children: A Basis for Parental Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 356. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. x+90. \$1.50.
- WEEKES, BLANCHE E. *The Influence of Meaning on Children's Choices of Poetry*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 354. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. 50. \$1.50.
- WHEAT, HARRY GROVE. *The Relative Merits of Conventional and Imaginative Types of Problems in Arithmetic*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 359. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. 124. \$1.50.
- WHITFORD, WILLIAM G. *An Introduction to Art Education*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. xviii+338. \$2.25.
- WHITNEY, FREDERICK LAMSON. *Statistics for Beginners in Education: An Elementary Presentation and Explanation of Sixty-two Terms in Educational Statistics*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+124.
- WOOD, BEN D., and FREEMAN, FRANK N. *Motion Pictures in the Classroom: An Experiment To Measure the Value of Motion Pictures as Supplementary Aids in Regular Classroom Instruction*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. xxii+392. \$1.80.
- YEAGER, WILLIAM ALLISON. *State Certification as a Factor in the Training of Elementary Teachers-in-Service*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1929. Pp. xii+350.

## BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BISHOP, MILDRED C., and ROBINSON, EDWARD K. *Map Exercises, Syllabus, and Notebook To Accompany Muzey's "History of the American People."* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. 96. \$0.56.
- BROWNJOHN, W. EARL. *Elementary Free-Hand Drawing: A Complete Course in Representation.* Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1929. 40 Lessons. \$0.68.
- CRISPIN, FREDERIC S. *Dictionary of Technical Terms* (Definitions of commonly used expressions in architecture, woodworking and building trades, electrical and metal-working trades, chemistry, etc.). Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1929. Pp. 284. \$1.25.
- DONDO, MATHURIN. *Modern French Course.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+546. \$1.72.
- EDDY, HELEN M. *Beginning French: Training for Reading: Manual*, pp. xviii+276, \$1.50; *Workbook*, pp. x+156, \$1.00. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.
- GALLAND, JOSEPH S., and DU GORD, ARMAND E. *Progressive French Reader.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. viii+210. \$0.80.
- GREGG, JOHN ROBERT. *Gregg Speed Studies.* New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1929 (revised). Pp. iv+314. \$1.20.
- HARRINGTON, HARRY FRANKLIN, assisted by EVALINE HARRINGTON. *Writing for Print: A Sample Book of Journalistic Craftsmanship, with Suggestions for High School Publications.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929 (revised). Pp. viii+312. \$1.36.
- LAWLER, LILLIAN B. *Easy Latin Plays.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+144. \$0.80.
- PASSARELLI, LUIGI A., and PÉZARD, ANDRÉ. *Les drôles aventures de Renard.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929. Pp. x+142. \$1.35.
- PROCTOR, WILLIAM MARTIN. *Vocations: The World's Work and Its Workers.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. x+382. \$1.48.
- ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY, and BREASTED, JAMES HENRY. *History of Europe: Ancient and Medieval.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929 (revised). Pp. xiv+668+xiv. \$2.12.
- SANTIVÁN, F. *La hechizada.* Edited with introduction, notes, and vocabulary by Alfred Coester. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1929. Pp. xii+136.
- STRONG, JOHN A. *The Use of the Dictionary.* Chicago: American Book Co., 1928. Pp. 48. \$0.32.
- ULLMAN, B. L., and HENRY, NORMAN E. *Second Latin Book.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1929 (revised). Pp. xviii+546+92. \$1.68.
- WINES, EMMA M., and CARD, MARJORY W. *"Come to Order!" Essentials of Parliamentary Practice.* Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1929. Pp. viii+84. \$0.60.

WOODRING, MAXIE NAVE, and SCHWENDENER, NORMA. *Enriched Teaching of Physical Education in the High School: A Source Book for Teachers of Physical Education, Camp Councillors, and Recreation Leaders, Listing Chiefly Free and Low Cost Illustrative and Supplementary Materials.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. x+144.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION  
AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

*Parent-Teacher Associations and School Health.* New York: American Child Health Association, 1929. Pp. 64. \$0.35.

Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:

Bulletin No. 15, 1929—*Parent Education, 1926-1928* by Ellen C. Lombard.

Bulletin No. 18, 1929—*Rural Education in 1926-1928* by Katherine M. Cook.

Bulletin No. 21, 1929—*Industrial Education, 1926-1928* by Maris M. Proffitt.

Bulletin No. 23, 1929—*Adult Education Activities during the Biennium 1926-1928* by L. R. Alderman.

*Some Problems of the General Shop and Other Studies.* Report of the Nineteenth Annual Manual Arts Conference. Edited by William T. Bawden. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1929. Pp. 36. \$0.10.

*Twenty-third Annual Report of the President and of the Treasurer of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.* New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1928. Pp. vi+166.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

BOORMAN, W. RYLAND. *Developing Personality in Boys: The Social Psychology of Adolescence.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. xx+258. \$2.50.

HERRICK, C. JUDSON. *The Thinking Machine.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929. Pp. xii+374. \$3.00.

HOLZINGER, KARL JOHN, and MITCHELL, BLYTHE CLAYTON. *Exercise Manual in Statistics.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. vi+160. \$2.40.

KIRKPATRICK, EDWIN A. *Fundamentals of Child Study.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1929 (revised). Pp. xxiv+410.

MORGAN, JOHN J. B. *The Psychology of Abnormal People with Educational Applications.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1928. Pp. x+628. \$3.20.

SCHWAB, SIDNEY I., and VEEDER, BORDEN S. *The Adolescent: His Conflicts and Escapes.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. 366. \$3.00.

